A SUPPLEMENT TO

International Commerce

A SPECIAL REPORT ON

AFRICA

SALES FRONTIER FOR U. S. BUSINESS

U. S. DEPARTMENT
OF COMMERCE
PUBLICATION

A Supplement to **International Commerce**

AFRICA

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

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Foreword

THE EMERGENCE of 23 new countries in Africa within the past 3 years has catapulted this vast continent into the center of the world arena. There are few Americans who have not become familiar with certain African place names or political leaders. Popular attention, indeed, has focused very largely on political changes; but changes in present-day Africa are many sided—economic, social, and demographic as well as political.

Past patterns of African production and trade are being drastically altered. New urban communities are springing up and large-scale development projects in mining, industry, and agriculture are under way in many parts of the continent under the impetus of sustained infusions of foreign funds—both from public and private sources.

Extreme variations in human and material resources and stages of economic growth are encountered in the various African countries. In some, promising immediate prospects exist for expanded United States exports, while in others, such possibilities are less dramatic and longer term in nature.

To meet the challenges and opportunities afforded by this continent in transition, the United States business community needs to be kept informed on all aspects of African development.

This report provides a basic guide to American businessmen regarding the general outlook for expansion of United States exports and private investments in the separate African areas. Commercial Attaches and Economic Officer personnel of our Embassies and Consular posts in selected African countries were asked to furnish their own on-the-spot candid assessments of the practical problems to be encountered by United States exporters and investors in their respective countries. Supplemental material, prepared by staff officers of the Bureau of International Commerce and other agencies, it is hoped, will make this report a useful current reference source for all United States businessmen interested in tapping the new frontier for trade and investment which Africa represents.

Eugene M. Braderman

EUGENE M. BRADERMAN
Director, Bureau of International Commerce

March 1963.

The new face of Africa—a manganese miner in Gabon.

Introduction

THE ECONOMIC setting in Africa is difficult to assess because of the invalidity of generalizations applied to the continent as a whole. Popular attitudes towards Africa's economic resources and potentialities stand in sharp contrast.

The optimist is attracted to the rich and still underdeveloped natural resources of a continent containing nearly one-fourth of the world's total land area. He points to Africa's present production of nearly one-seventh of the world's mineral output and its significant resources of energy, especially in hydropower.

The pessimist, conversely, is attracted to the disabilities of contemporary Africa; to the prevalence of illiteracy and disease; to the ramifications of political or racial tension in some areas; and above all, to the general poverty of its peoples. Subsistence agriculture accounts for about one-third of the continent's output and, at its present stage of economic development, Africa accounts for only 2 percent of the value of goods and services produced in the world annually.

Both the pessimist and the optimist can find support for his contentions in contemporary Africa. However, most observers agree that, while economic gains have been much less spectacular than political development, considerable economic growth has taken place and that Africa has steadily advanced its role in the world's economy.

Estimates compiled by the United Nations show that Africa annually exports commodities worth $6.6 billion, while its imports are valued at approximately $8 billion. These figures reflect Africa's heavy dependence on foreign trade and its overall reliance on foreign capital inflows to meet the net import deficit. According to these United Nations data, gross output for all of Africa is valued at $26 billion, but one country alone, the Republic of South Africa, accounts for nearly one-fifth of this amount. Per capita income for all of Africa is estimated at $110 per year. If the highly developed Republic of South Africa is excluded, however, per capita income would be about $90 per year. These figures illustrate the enormity of the general problem of bridging the gap of centuries in African economic development, but, as one United Nations report concludes—

"The transformation of the traditional and mainly subsistence economy to a modern economy constitutes a basic characteristic of economic development in most of Africa. This process has gone on rapidly in recent years, and indications are that it will continue at an accelerating pace in the near future under the pressure both of outside influences and of the cumulative forces of growth set in motion within the African economy. Especially for newly independent countries, rapid economic development is both a necessity and a problem." [1]

TRADE IMPACT

The impact of Africa's economic development has been manifest in expanded foreign trade. African exports are increasingly diversified as more and more local processing of raw materials for export is being undertaken.

Similarly, the composition of Africa's imports is changing. Capital goods figure more heavily at present than a decade ago, and this trend is likely to continue. As living standards rise, a broader variety of consumer goods imports in a wider price range also has been in evidence. These develop-

[1] *Economic Survey of Africa Since 1950*, United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs. 1959.

ments provide greater opportunities for expansion of U.S. exports to Africa.

On the other hand, competition has stiffened for this market. In parts of Africa, particularly in the sterling area, trade and exchange controls have been liberalized and more aggressive salesmanship there by American suppliers should produce effective results. In many areas, however, formidable barriers, in the form of preferential tariff and/or quantitative restrictions still exist against U.S. exports.

As the separate country commentaries in this publication indicate, the outlook for American exports contrasts sharply from country to country. Indeed, the countries, themselves, were selected to illustrate these differences. For example, a promising competitive situation such as in Nigeria, contrasts with the situation in Upper Volta or in Angola and Mozambique, where either quantitative restrictions or limited resources are among barriers to trade with the United States. However, few of the obstacles to trade can be considered as permanently insurmountable. Countries with poor resources now may suddenly discover natural resources providing new stimulus for foreign trade. Libya, for example, was regarded as one of the poorer countries in Africa scarcely a decade ago. Today, petroleum exploration and development have given the country a booming economy.

Over the long term, the newly independent countries will continue to follow policies which increasingly diversify foreign trade relationships and break away from traditional commercial and financial patterns. This trend can be expected to continue as productive capacity expands.

The country situations described in this book demonstrate that the African market today offers both immediate and longer term possibilities for an increasingly diversified range of American products, but that American exporters will need to devote necessary attention to Africa as a specialized market.

Expanding African Trade: Secretary of Commerce Luther H. Hodges discusses trade and investment opportunities with two officials of Ethiopia. At right is Ambassador Birhanou Dinke, and in center is Lidj Endalkatchen Makonnen, Ethiopia's Minister of Commerce and Industry.

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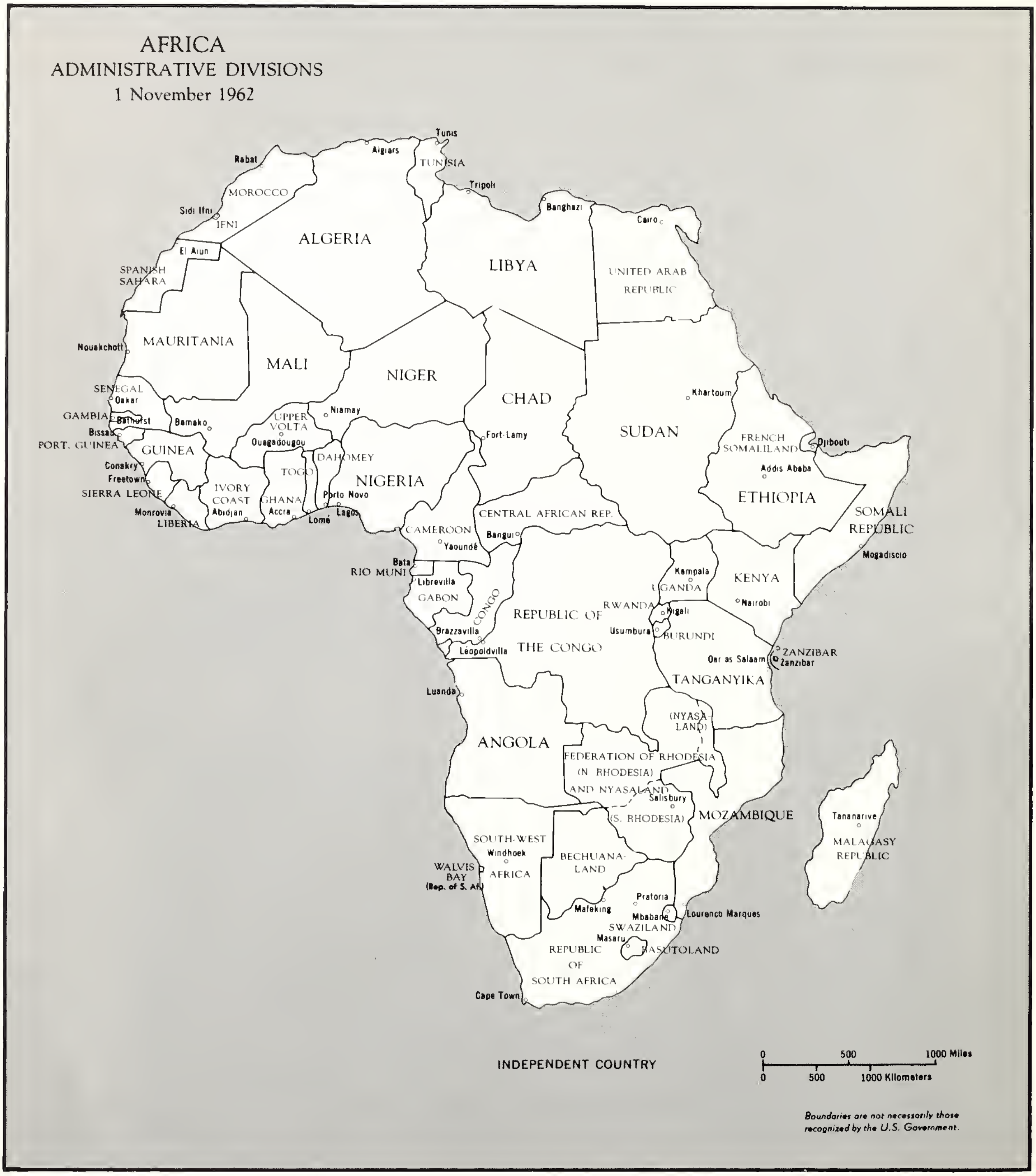
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1 November 1962
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Tunis
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MOROCCO
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IFNI
ALGERIA
Tripoli
Banghazi
Cairo
LIBYA
UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC
El Aiun
SPANISH SAHARA
MAURITANIA
Nouakchott
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NIGER
CHAD
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Zanzibar
Dar es Salaam
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Luanda
ANGOLA
(NYASALAND)
FEDERATION OF RHODESIA
(N. RHODESIA)
AND NYASALAND
Salisbury
(S. RHODESIA)
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(Rep. of S. Af.)
BECHUANALAND
Mafeking
Pretoria
Mbabane
SWAZILAND
Lourenco Marques
Maseru
BASUTOLAND
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA
Cape Town
INDEPENDENT COUNTRY
0 500 1000 Miles
0 500 1000 Kilometers
Boundaries are not necessarily those recognized by the U.S. Government.

CHAPTER I

Economic Policy in Changing Africa

By Bernard Blankenheimer

Director, Africa Division
Office of International Regional Economics

Bernard Blankenheimer is a graduate of Brooklyn College and holds a masters degree in Economics from George Washington University. Since joining the Department of Commerce in 1941, he has traveled extensively in Africa. A Fellow of the African Studies Association, he is a lecturer at Howard University and at the School of Advanced International Studies of Johns Hopkins University.

THE AFRICAN CONTINENT, with its vast untapped resources and bewildering array of peoples, cultures, and new nations, is in process of dramatic economic transition.

Everywhere there is preoccupation and emphasis on the problems of economic development. Private enterprise and, in particular, foreign private enterprise, is generally recognized as an important contributor to such development, but African Government attitudes and policies, with respect to the role of private enterprise, vary considerably. Proper assessment of African economic and commercial policy requires an understanding of the vital interrelationships that exist between economic, political, social, and cultural patterns.

Certain development projects undertaken by African governments, such as land resettlement schemes, have proved to be disastrous failures because too little account was taken beforehand of particular social and/or environmental factors regarding the African's attitude toward land, the tribe or extended family units, or property, such as cattle. For example, the nomadic Masai of proud warrior traditions in Kenya or the wandering Fulani of Northern Nigeria have generally resisted efforts to settle them permanently or to domesticate their cattle for commercial meat production. Cattle are slaughtered only out of sheer necessity, because they are more important on the hoof, as a symbol of wealth and status, and because of their most useful function as a type of dowry or "bride price." Similarly, some contemporary economic developments in Africa may be motivated primarily by political considerations and the projects may be quite illogical when assessed on economic grounds alone.

The thin and often obscure dividing line between politically and economically inspired developments is not in itself unique to the African continent—but there is, perhaps, one unique characteristic in African policy not found to the same extent in other continents—and that is the all-embracing and pervading preoccupation with colonialism which colors a good deal of African thinking and policy decisions.

M. Lazare Mpakaniye, Ambassador of the Republic of Rwanda, one of Africa's newest nations, calls on Assistant Secretary of Commerce Jack N. Behrman following the Ambassador's arrival in Washington, D.C., to open his country's Embassy.

While occasionally African leaders may grant that certain residual "benefits" were derived from colonial associations with the European powers, e.g., language, religion, bridges, roads, etc., they contend that these "benefits" were only incidental to the process of "colonial imperialism" which embodied political domination and economic exploitation. Consequently, it is important to understand that the traditional concept of colonialism is universally repugnant to Africans and that the new African states, so soon emerged from a colonial or dependent status, do not feel themselves either secure or entirely free from colonial vestiges or neo-colonial influences. Because of the role that foreign private enterprise, predominantly of metropolitan, or mother country, origin, played during the colonial period, the task of the leadership of the new African states, as a first impulse, was to safeguard the country's newfound sovereignty by controlling the role and scope of foreign private interests in the country's economy so as to prevent resurgence of "economic imperialism." [1]

Weighed against this impulse was the tacit recognition of the realities of the situation; that for the most part foreign private enterprise, in fact, accounted for much of the activity in the productive sector of the economy and that future economic growth necessarily had to lean heavily on the faith, confidence, and continued investment of foreign enterprise. This situation has given rise to confusing and sometimes outright contradictions between policy pronouncements, regulations, and/or actions by African leaders.[2]

Does this imply an ideological antipathy to private enterprise? No—not yet—but the danger exists that such hostility may develop in many of the emergent countries because of the deepening disappointment of African leaders over the hesitancy of foreign private enterprise to take more speculative risks. Such frustration, if unrelieved, may drive these leaders into a more precipitous attachment to "statism" as a means of achieving economic development goals.

This danger is clearly indicated in a speech made before the Commerce and Industry Association of New York in the middle of 1960 by the Honorable Chief Festus Okotie-Eboh, Federal Minister of Finance of the Government of Nigeria, in which he appealed to American businessmen to make their contribution to the economic development of Nigeria by investments there. He said:

This is a call from Macedonia that you should come and help us. We hope that this call will not fall on deaf ears. We believe that you are sympathetic to our cause.

[1] This theme ran through many of the speeches by participants in the Second Conference of Independent African States held in Addis Ababa in June 1960, and appeared even in speeches before economic forums, such as plenary sessions of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa.

[2] At a time when one West African country was embarked on an advertising campaign in the United States to induce private capital investment, public statements were made by high officials in that country implying future nationalization of certain existing foreign enterprises. These statements were immediately followed by official disclaimers of any such intentions.

Some of you are already there. Those of you who are already there and who have had investments have a common purpose and a common touch with us . . .

In his candid extemporaneous manner, the Minister spoke of the wonderful reception accorded him and his mission everywhere by commercial interests and by officials of the United States Government but, he cautioned,

If we go home and report, they will take our report for what it is, but they will wait to see. As it is said in my tribe, that the blind man says that he is only convinced that his son has caught game during the hunting only when he tastes of the venison. . . . They will say 'Yes' but they will wait and if they are going to wait for the moon, then you are running into a difficult situation.

A similar warning was sounded by Dr. H. K. Banda, outspoken Nationalist leader in Nyasaland:

I would rather have the dollars and the pounds, but if the dollars and pounds are not forthcoming, I am not going to let my people starve and I am going to take the rubles.

What then are the prospects and problems for foreign private enterprise in Africa? To answer this adequately we should have an appreciation of certain underlying background facts.

STRUCTURE OF THE AFRICAN ECONOMY

Africa consists of some 60 political entities ranging from ancient sovereign states such as Ethiopia to dependencies such as Basutoland. Their state of development varies from relatively advanced mineral-industrial economies, such as the Republic of South Africa to the marginal agro-pastoral economy of the Somali Republic, and from underdeveloped but potentially rich Nigeria, a populous country of some 40 million people, to poorer and more sparsely settled areas in East and North Africa.

Prior to 1950, only 3 countries (excluding Egypt) were independent. In a single year—1960—17 countries achieved their independence. The total today stands at 33. Still others are preparing for independence. African states form more than one-fourth of the total membership of the United Nations and are, therefore, in a position to exert considerable influence in international forums.

Notwithstanding this startling upsurge in the political stature of Africa, the continent has achieved only limited economic growth in relation to its resource potentials. In no other continent does so large a proportion of the population depend on subsistence-productive activities carried on within the framework of the traditional tribal economy. Substantial progress has been made toward the transformation of this traditional subsistence economy to a modern production-for-exchange economy, but such activities in much of Africa are directed to the output of primary products for exportation rather than production for home consumption. Intra-African trade, therefore, is of minor importance in relation to Africa's global trade. Africa's general prosperity depends directly on demand and price levels in industrial countries for these primary products, notably including timber, coffee, cocoa, and various metals and minerals. In the past, the capital, technology, and motivation for much of the development in Africa, came, not from within Africa, but from external sources and predominantly from the metropolitan countries.

Such capital was in the form of both public loans and grants, but heavy reliance was placed also on private foreign capital inflows. It is estimated that from World War II to 1957, some $10 billion—half public, half private—was invested in Africa, and that the great bulk of it came from Western Europe.[3]

In summary, the structural nature of the African economies—e.g., dual subsistence-exchange activities, dependence on primary output for export, low income, and limited internal capital formation capabilities—all have combined to make economic development heavily contingent on external sources.

THE TECHNOLOGICAL GAP IN AFRICA

A fundamental deficiency in the African economy stemming from this dependency on external forces is the "technological gap" and the all too glaring absence or shortage of indigenous entrepreneurial skills and managerial talent.

Generally, the African is either employed in agricultural pursuits or is a laborer in commerce and industry. There are relatively few indigenous self-employed entrepreneurs, and private indigenously owned limited liability companies are rare in tropical Africa. Where Africans are

[3] "The African Economy and International Trade," Andrew M. Kamarck in *The United States and Africa,* American Assembly, Columbia University, 1958.

entrepreneurs, they are usually small traders, individual proprietorships, or partnerships rather than corporations.

In economic life perhaps this, more than any other factor, has motivated direct government or government-sponsored activities around a framework of some sort of centralized or state-inspired blueprint or plan for development. In almost all of the newly independent African states, there is a definite trend for the public sector to play an important role in economic and social development. As one United Nations report observed:

*The fact is, given the lack of conditions necessary for a more spontaneous growth, many African Governments have no choice but to perform the functions of an entrepreneur in diverting savings into productive investments and even in assuming the responsibilities of management. Many of the facilities, such as transport, water supply, and power, the so-called infrastructure, are in urgent need of development—and in these fields government initiative is essential * * *[4]*

The report also points out that government has a key role in agricultural research and improvement and "in the provision for technical and vocational training for industry."

The extension of government in African economies into activities that in the United States are not normally in the public sector has caused many observers to express concern that such actions by African governments constitute an ideological commitment to state socialism and, as a corollary, definite opposition to capitalism. Governments are placed into specific categories and are labeled "pro" or "con." Rather, it would seem that most emergent African states, independent only for from 1 to 10 years, have not yet developed a fixed or firm political or economic ideology, and that the wide variants and admixtures of free and controlled economies found in different parts of Africa are based more on experimental pragmatic considerations and an impatience to speed economic growth than on theoretical ideology.

In this situation throughout Africa, there is much scope for private foreign enterprise, provided this enterprise, as the Assistant Secretary of State for African Affairs, the Honorable G. Mennen Williams, has said, accepts Africa "on its own terms." In a speech[5] before a group of American businessmen, Governor Williams stated:

We must, of course, encourage the African nations to develop the plurality of institutions that we have found to be the greatest bulwark of freedom. In particular, we must help them find a place for private enterprise but we would be remiss if we did not say very candidly that private enterprise, itself, must be prepared to make major adjustments.

These adjustments, he went on, included more emphasis on management and less on ownership; and similarly, more emphasis on obligations for training to employ surplus African labor rather than on capital intensive investment.

Africans want "Africanization"—which should not be confused with "nationalization." Africans want to see African labor trained and employed, African resources used, and Africans encouraged and given an opportunity to participate in enterprise.

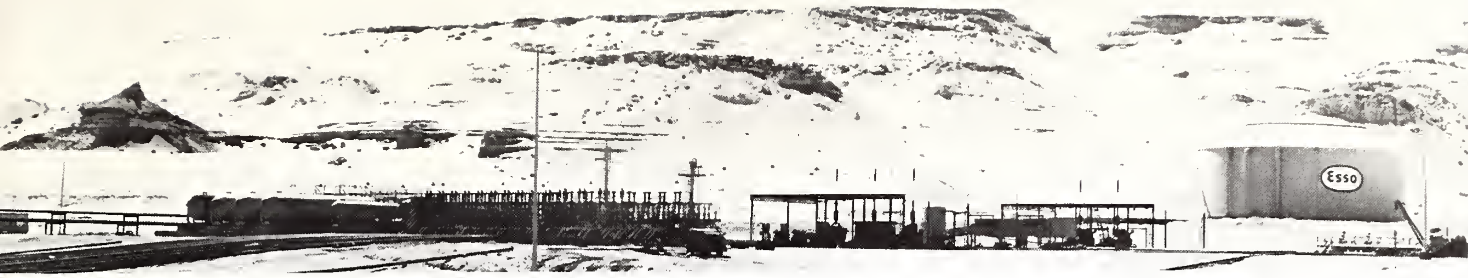
Unfortunately, many of the established expatriate or foreign-based enterprises in Africa have not changed their policies in these respects fast enough or soon enough to suit African leaders, and as a result less and less reliance is being placed on the very institution of private enterprise. If Africa is to develop a healthy respect for the benefits of private enterprise, the process of Africanization in entrepreneurial activities must be speeded up. In this context, private enterprise itself should take the initiative.

It is noteworthy that in contrast with some oldline enterprises, the pattern for new private foreign investment activity in Africa is for joint ventures with local interests, both public and/or private. Moreover, enlightened private foreign enterprises in Africa are supporting in-service training activities, education, and other community activities. This is particularly true of American private capital which has gone into Africa. American oil companies in West Africa, for example, have taken the lead in developing private entrepreneurships in gasoline station operators, while one American mining company in Liberia has made possible local stock participation on an installment basis, to be paid out of eventual earnings.

All African states keenly seek the contribution of American business to African development, and it is encouraging that a number of these states have established specialized trade and investment promotion offices in the United States aimed at attracting U.S. businessmen to their country. Many official African missions have

[4] *Economic Survey of Africa Since 1950*, United Nations, 1959, p. 3 ff.

[5] *Africa's Challenge to American Enterprise*, by G. Mennen Williams, Assistant Secretary of State for African Affairs; address made before National Conference on Small Business at Washington, D.C., December 1, 1961.



Courtesy Esso Libya

American oil companies, such as this one in Libya, have assisted in the development of a new resource and industry.

visited the United States in specific search for U.S. capital and technology, and in many countries specific investment codes or legislation have been introduced to induce new private capital inflows.

A typical example is the new Investment Code enacted June 1961 by the Republic of Congo (Brazzaville) which aims at encouraging both foreign and domestic private investment by putting forth certain guarantees for qualified business ventures. These benefits—similar to those provided for in the investment laws of several other French-speaking African states—include the free transfer of profits and capital realized from the sale of assets, identical treatment of foreign enterprises and their employees with those enjoyed by Congolese counterparts, certain basic fiscal and tax advantages, liberalization of import restrictions for the construction and outfitting of plant and equipment, limitation on the importation of competing products and provision for necessary tariff protection, and preferential treatment on exportation of products from the Congo by virtue of export tax remissions. Similar investment codes or laws designed to encourage foreign and domestic investment have been enacted by many African countries, while in still others such laws are under consideration.

The United States Government, itself, through the various programs of the Agency for International Development, the Export-Import Bank of Washington, and the U.S. Department of Commerce, has attempted to stimulate active participation of American capital, technology, and management in African economic development. Under the Investment Guaranty Program, administered by AID, insurance is provided against various kinds of political and economic risks, e.g., expropriation and nationalization, war risk, and exchange convertibility. Loan finance can be provided from various sources such as the Development Loan Fund, administered by AID, and the Export-Import Bank, while information and advice and on-the-spot help is available to American businessmen from the U.S. Department of Commerce in cooperation with the U.S. Foreign Service.

The present extent and geographic distribution of American private investments in Africa are limited. Out of a total of $34.7 billion of American direct investments around the world, the amount in Africa totaled only $1.04 billion at the end of 1961; of this total, $231 million was in North Africa, $56 million in East Africa, $341 million in West Africa, and $413 million in Central and Southern Africa. Although manufacturing and industrial activities were rather well represented in U.S. investment in South Africa, most U.S. investments in West and Inter-tropical Africa were in extractive operations and petroleum distribution. These figures do reveal a satisfying rate of growth in investments in tropical Africa as compared with Southern Africa, however. The $341 million total of U.S. direct investments in West Africa in 1961 represents an increase of more than 700 percent over 1950, when such investments totaled only $42 million.

Efforts to increase our investment position in Africa are in the best interests not only of the American businessman but also of both the United States and the African Governments.

The future of Africa is in the hands of Africans, but they need help. Help that modern American and other foreign private enterprises can provide. For private foreign enterprise carries with it its own technology and managerial capacity, provides added sources of revenues so desperately needed by African governments, assists in the training and employment of African indigenous peoples, and contributes to the emergence of an entrepreneurial class so vital to the future stability of Africa.

Courtesy World Bank

Port Sudan harbor, Sudan's gateway on the Red Sea.

Present U.S. Business Interests in Africa

By A. A. Wilken, Jr.
Africa Division
Office of International Regional Economics

Following 4 years of service with the U.S. Air Force, Mr. Wilken graduated from the University of California at Los Angeles with B.A. and M.A. degrees in Economics, and subsequently studied at the University of Michigan. He is now serving as Desk Officer for the tropical, French-speaking African countries.

TRADE WITH AFRICA

United States trade with Africa—a relatively small part of total U.S. trade—is expanding considerably. During the past decade, growth of exports to and imports from Africa has been at an accelerating rate. U.S. exports to the continent (excluding Egypt) in 1962, shown in table 1, increased 12.1 percent over the preceding year. This compares with an 8.2 percent increase between 1960 and 1961 and with an average annual rate of increase of 1.79 percent from 1956 through 1960. At the same time, the value of U.S. imports from Africa increased by 15.4 percent from 1961 to 1962, and by 8.9 percent from 1960 to 1961, contrasting sharply with an average annual decrease of 3 percent from 1956 through 1960.

Major Products

As a general group, machinery items have constituted the most important category of U.S. exports to Africa. Food products other than fats and oils hold second place among U.S. exports to Africa; and sales during the first half of last year were 62.7 percent greater than in the comparable period of 1961. A large part of these exports, however, were financed under U.S. Food for Peace programs.

Other major exports to Africa, shown in table 2, are finished and semifinished textile manufactures; automobiles, parts, and accessories; chemicals and related products; iron, steel, and manufactured metal items; and petroleum products. Largest relative gains in the first 6 months of 1962 were made in exports of iron, steel, and metal manufactures; these sales were 68.1 percent over the first-half 1961 level.

Principal U.S. imports from Africa, shown in table 3, continue to be minerals, coffee, and cocoa, although purchases of cocoa declined slightly from the 1961 level. Ferroalloys, ores, and metals were replaced by coffee as the first-ranking import in 1962 as U.S. purchases of coffee from Angola and East Africa increased substantially.

Precious and semiprecious stones showed the greatest percentage rise among products purchased from Africa. A large part of this increase was accounted for by imports from the Republic of

Table 1.—*U.S. Trade With Africa, by Country, 1961–62*

[In thousands of dollars]

Area and country	U.S. exports, including reexports[1]		General U.S. imports	
	1961	1962	1961	1962
Total Africa	826,819	979,883	669,443	758,884
Percent of U.S. total	4.3	5.0	4.5	4.6
United Arab Republic (Egypt)	161,874	234,390	34,229	25,586
Total Africa, excluding United Arab Republic	664,945	745,493	635,214	733,298
North Africa and the Horn, total	218,855	245,302	50,309	68,763
Morocco	65,989	52.638	11,347	10,739
Algeria	42,116	49,879	259	5.328
Tunisia	39.512	45.856	683	1,638
Libya	30,308	43,892	457	11.934
Sudan	11,601	12,897	5,099	6,953
Somali Republic	1,063	4,582	436	656
French Somaliland	794	665	248	585
Ethiopia	10,892	23,236	31,406	29,508
Canary Islands	11,878	9,614	174	1,407
Spanish Africa, n.e.c	4,702	2,043	200	15
Middle Africa, total	184,158	244,252	329,007	332,145
Cameroon, Federal Republic of[2]	4,119	4,266	6,196	6,947
Western Equatorial Africa, n.e.c., (former French Equatorial Africa)	7,626	4,481	1,713	6,597
Western Africa, n.e.c. (former French West Africa and Republic of Togo)	19,917	29,958	35.872	40,485
Ghana	21,163	22,831	74,749	62,503
Nigeria[3]	26,779	33,666	49,073	47,732
British West Africa and Sierra Leone	3,027	3,073	4,547	9.875
Madeira Islands	879	916	2,214	3,013
Liberia	49,634	50,993	31,847	31,323
Seychelles and dependencies	38	7	90	103
Mauritius and dependencies	735	1,054	846	2,863
East Africa (Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika, and Zanzibar)	18,872	21,360	52,430	57,174
Republic of the Congo (former Belgian Congo), Rwanda, and Burundi	29,475	68,888	55,932	47,516
Malagasy Republic	1,894	2.759	13,498	16,014
Southern Africa, total	261,932	255,938	255,899	332,390
Angola	9,773	11,437	28,037	38.169
Mozambique	9,995	7,582	5,373	6,456
Western Portuguese Africa, n.e.c.	432	360	2,964	1,419
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Federation of	13.649	13,634	10,279	29,612
Republic of South Africa[4]	228,083	222,925	209,246	256,734

[1] Data exclude "special category" exports: percentages are based on U.S. totals, excluding "special category." "Special category" exports are those exports on which information is withheld for security reasons.
[2] Data for 1961 refer to former Republic of Cameroun; figures for 1962 include former British Southern Cameroons.
[3] Data for 1962 include former Northern British Cameroons.
[4] South-West Africa and British High Commission Territories of Bechuanaland, Basutoland, and Swaziland are included.
n.e.c. Not elsewhere classified.

Source: International Trade Analysis Division, Bureau of International Commerce, U.S. Department of Commerce, from basic data furnished by the Bureau of the Census.

South Africa and significantly greater purchases from Sierra Leone, Congo (Leopoldville), Ghana, and French-speaking West Africa.

On a regional basis, imports from North Africa and the Horn[1] increased by 36.7 percent in 1962 compared with 1961; imports from Southern Africa rose by 29.9 percent and those from Middle Africa by slightly less than 1 percent.

[1] The Horn is that area of Africa comprising Ethiopia, French Somaliland, and the Somali Republic. See map, p. 44.

Table 2.—*Principal U.S. Exports to Africa, Excluding Egypt, 1960–61, January–June 1961 and 1962*

[In thousands of dollars]

Product	1960	1961	January–June 1961	January–June[1] 1962
Total U.S. exports to Africa	614,514	664,945	311,270	363,256
Foodstuffs, except fats and oils	54,971	139,249	53.909	87,724
Grains and preparations	46,898	128.487	49,029	79.386
Other	8,073	10,762	4,880	8,338
Machinery	193,008	192,213	92,087	98,883
Industrial machinery	118,908	128,771	58,359	67,918
Construction, excavating, and mining	64,317	72,292	31.934	37,527
Electrical machinery and apparatus	23,622	20.110	11,083	11,943
Tractors, parts, and accessories	38,173	32,681	16,613	13,849
Textile semi- and finished manufactures	55,246	54,519	27,922	28,939
Manmade (synthetic fibers and manufactures)	21,936	19,914	9,936	11,680
Automobiles, parts, and accessories	65 249	46,912	24,481	26,675
Chemicals and related products	41,471	40,119	19,888	22,157
Iron and steel and metal manufactures	29,640	25,915	10,059	16,908
Petroleum and products	23,347	19,155	9,227	10,580
Wood and paper	19,086	17,204	8,369	9,892
Tobacco and manufactures	11,076	14,902	7,194	7,277
Rubber and manufactures	12,048	11,849	5,710	7,705

[1] At time of publication, year figures for 1962 by commodity were not available.

Source: International Trade Analysis Division, Bureau of International Commerce, U.S. Department of Commerce, from basic data furnished by the Bureau of the Census.

Table 3.—*Principal U.S. Imports From Africa, Excluding Egypt, 1960–62*

[In thousands of dollars]

Product	1960	1961	1962
Total U.S. imports from Africa	594,970	635,214	733,298
Agricultural			
Coffee, total	123,193	136,380	145,811
East Africa[1]	29,618	36,872	39,321
Ethiopia	24,668	29,456	26,606
Angola	23,727	24,436	36,819
Congo (Leopoldville)[2]	25,631	21,959	17,943
Western Africa, n.e.c.[3]	18,889	16,905	13,737
Cocoa and cocoa beans, total	66,473	113,085	94,014
Ghana	35,837	60,773	48,127
Nigeria	19,536	31,710	27,214
Western Africa, n.e.c.	6,969	13,058	14,925
Crude rubber, total	49,451	39,209	39,189
Liberia	29,583	23,755	20,947
Nigeria	11,518	9,706	10,439
Wool, unmanufactured, total (chiefly Republic of South Africa)	17,923	24,949	28,906
Nonagricultural			
Ferroalloys, ores and metals, total	147,607	138,564	141,226
Republic of South Africa (primarily uranium)	106,031	102,645	110,299
Ghana (manganese)	14,045	13,076	8,742
Nonferrous ores and metals, total	54,102	33,714	28,045
Republic of South Africa (mostly copper)	27,945	21,672	17,236
Congo (Leopoldville), mostly cobalt and zinc	10,783	10,001	5,828
Precious stones, total	18,270	24,566	63,459
Republic of South Africa	15,856	20,744	35,780

[1] Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika, and Zanzibar.
[2] Includes Rwanda and Burundi.
[3] Former French West Africa and Togo.

Source: International Trade Analysis Division, Bureau of International Commerce, U.S. Department of Commerce, from basic data furnished by the Bureau of the Census.

Regional Developments

Gains in U.S. export sales have not been evenly distributed within Africa. Greatest percentage increases were made in Middle Africa (an area where the U.S. business community has only recently begun to undertake more vigorous promotional activity) and a substantial rise was shown in sales to North Africa and the Horn. Exports to Southern Africa, however, declined slightly from 1961 to 1962. A number of factors contributed to this varied pattern.

In North Africa, for example, a major part of the sharp rise in exports was accounted for by increased shipments of grains and foodstuffs, largely under U.S. Food for Peace programs, as a result of prolonged drought conditions and poor harvests throughout the area.

Sales to Sudan and countries in the Horn of Africa rose in connection with a general acceleration of economic development which was given some impetus by U.S. assistance programs. Exports to Ethiopia more than doubled in 1962, primarily as a result of the sale of two U.S. jet transport aircraft.

In Ghana, Nigeria, Liberia, and French-speaking West Africa, as well as in English-speaking East Africa, particularly large increases were made in sales of iron, steel, metal manufactures, and machinery. This trend reflects advances which have been made in industrialization and economic development over much of Middle Africa—bolstered by U.S. and other foreign aid programs—and a rising level of investment activity.

Expansion of U.S. exports to French-speaking Equatorial Africa and Cameroon was limited by the continuance of strictly enforced import licensing and control systems and by the introduction, in mid-1962, of a Common External Tariff which provides preferential treatment to imports from France and European Common Market countries.

A decrease in sales to the Republic of South Africa last year was attributed mainly to reduced governmental expenditures for railway transportation equipment and aircraft.

The decline in exports to Mozambique resulted directly from strict import controls which were instituted to combat a severe balance-of-payments problem.

Long-Term Regional Changes

Changes in sales to various African areas last year are consistent with long-run patterns which have taken shape in U.S.-African trade over the past few years. The newly independent countries in tropical and northern Africa have assumed steadily growing importance as markets for U.S. products. Ambitious economic development programs have been launched in the majority of countries in these regions and several states have taken deliberate steps to broaden and diversify the geographical base of their foreign trade.

Sales to some of the established and traditionally more important African markets, in contrast, have increased at distinctly slower rates or have leveled off. As a result, U.S. sales to each of the three regions in 1962 were almost equal, in rough figures. Although Southern Africa still accounted for the largest part of U.S. exports to Africa, the situation has changed markedly from that which existed as recently as 1959, when nearly half of total U.S. exports to the continent went to Southern Africa, and Middle and North Africa accounted for only about one-quarter each.

INVESTMENT IN AFRICA

The value of U.S. direct investments in Africa, as shown in table 4, increased by more than 300 percent from 1950 through 1961 and amounted to over $1 billion in 1961. This expansion is particularly impressive when compared with the growth of U.S. direct investments over the world during the same period. The rate of increase in Africa was more than 50 percent higher than the global rate over the period from 1950 through 1961 and over three times greater from 1960 to 1961.

Regionally, the increase in American investments in Africa over the past several years has been unevenly distributed. Greatest percentage gains have been made in North and Middle Africa and, as a result, significant changes have occurred in the geographic distribution of these investments on the continent. Southern Africa in 1950 accounted for over 70 percent of the value of U.S. direct investments in Africa, and North Africa for less than 7 percent; in 1961 the regional distribution was more nearly equal, with Southern Africa representing only 40 percent of the total.

Table 4.—*Value of U.S. Direct Investments in Africa, by Region,*[1] *1950, 1960–61*

Region	1950		1960		1961		1950–61	1960–61
	Value [2]	Percent Africa total	Value [2]	Percent Africa total	Value [2]	Percent Africa total	Percent increase	Percent increase
North Africa	16	6.5	137	15.8	231	22.2	1,343.8	68.6
Middle Africa	54	21.7	336	38.7	397	38.2	635.2	18.2
East Africa	12	4.8	46	5.3	56	5.4	366.7	21.7
West Africa	42	16.9	290	33.4	341	32.8	711.9	17.6
Central and Southern Africa, total	177	71.4	394	45.4	413	39.7	133.3	4.8
Republic of South Africa	140	56.5	286	33.0	304	29.2	177.1	6.3
Rhodesia and Nyasaland	26	10.5	82	9.5	87	8.4	234.6	6.1
Total Africa	248	99.6	867	99.9	1,041	100.1	319.8	20.1
Total World	11,788	----------	32,778	----------	34,684	----------	194.2	5.8

[1] Excluding United Arab Republic (Egypt).
[2] In millions of dollars.

Sources: *Survey of Current Business*, August 1961 and August 1962 issues, U.S. Department of Commerce, Washington. *U.S. Business Investments in Foreign Countries*, U.S. Department of Commerce, Washington, 1960.

Notwithstanding this encouraging increase in U.S. investments in lesser developed areas in Africa, the bulk of this increase was in extractive activities. As shown in table 5, while in absolute terms, the value of investment in manufacturing increased significantly, the proportional share of U.S. investment in manufacturing in Africa has declined in the past decade and increased in mining and petroleum exploration.

This trend is especially evident in North Africa, where nearly all of the increase in U.S. direct investment over the past 10 years has been in petroleum exploration and exploitation, and in West Africa, where the bulk of the increase has taken place in mining and smelting. Most of the investment in manufacturing has been confined to Central and Southern Africa where substantial and established local markets exist.

Data on investment plans of U.S. firms indicate that these trends will continue into the immediate future. Projected 1962 and 1963 expenditures for plant and equipment of direct U.S. investments in Africa, shown in table 6, are predominantly for projects in the petroleum industry and, to a lesser extent, in the mining industry. Planned investments in manufacturing operations are relatively small and, again, limited almost entirely to Southern Africa.

Table 5.—*Value of U.S. Direct Investments in Africa,*[1] *by Type of Activity, 1950 and 1961*

[In millions of dollars]

Type of activity	1950		1961	
	Amount	Percent of total	Amount	Percent of total
Mining and smelting	64	25.8	285	27.4
Petroleum	98	39.5	474	45.5
Manufacturing	47	18.9	109	10.5
Trade	21	8.4	59	5.7
Other	19	7.6	113	10.9
Total, Africa	248	100.2	1,041	100.0

[1] Excluding United Arab Republic (Egypt).

Sources: See table 1.

Table 6.—*Plant and Equipment Expenditures of U.S. Direct Investments in Africa,*[1] *by Region and Type of Activity, 1961–63*

[In millions of dollars]

Region	Mining and smelting			Petroleum			Manufacturing		
	1961	1962 [2]	1963 [2]	1961	1962 [2]	1963 [2]	1961	1962 [2]	1963 [2]
Africa, total	47	67	56	171	188	169	10	12	12
North Africa	(3)	(3)	(3)	111	134	116	(3)	(3)	(3)
East Africa	(3)	(3)	(3)	9	12	13	(3)	(3)	(3)
West Africa	22	37	26	34	30	29	(3)	(3)	(3)
Central and South Africa, total	25	30	30	17	11	12	10	12	12
Republic of South Africa	10	10	10	(4)	(4)	(4)	8	11	11
Other countries	15	20	20	(4)	(4)	(4)	2	1	1

[1] Includes United Arab Republic (Egypt).
[2] Estimated on the basis of company projections.
[3] Less than $500,000.
[4] Included in area total.

Source: Cutler, F., Foreign Capital Outlays and Sales of U.S. Companies, *Survey of Current Business*, September 1962, U.S. Department of Commerce, Wasbington.

CHAPTER III

The AID Program: Implications for U.S. Business in Africa

By Lloyd D. Black
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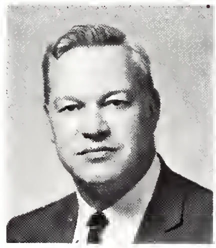


THE PROBLEMS of applying AID procurement policies to maximize purchases of U.S. goods and services because of balance-of-payments reasons are particularly acute in the economic assistance programs now being conducted in 34 African countries. Numerous factors make it difficult to operate these programs without a net drain on our balance of payments. It is therefore essential that AID, Commerce, and State, in cooperation with private enterprise, endeavor to expand U.S. trade with Africa.

The AID program in Africa presents an opportunity to U.S. business firms because current policies require that AID funds be expended for U.S. goods and services to the maximum extent possible and also because the pace of economic development is creating new markets.

For AID, the fiscal year ending June 30, 1962, was a period of examination, reorganization, and redirection of the economic assistance program. All programs in Africa were carefully reviewed to assure that their goals were well-conceived, capable of accomplishment, and responsive to the principal needs of the countries being assisted. The pattern for the allocation of AID resources in Africa was evaluated, as were the planning and "self-help" measures undertaken by the Africans themselves. (See table 7.)

Table 7.—*Aid Obligations for Fiscal Years (Ending June 30) 1961 and 1962 and Estimated Obligations for Fiscal Year 1963*

[In millions of dollars]

Type of assistance	Obligations FY 1961	Preliminary obligations FY 1962	Estimated obligations FY 1963
Development grants	69.7	[1] 166.2	[1] 126.8
Development loans	53.2	85.6	100.0
Supporting assistance	81.8	61.1	40.3
Total [2]	204.7	312.9	267.1

[1] Country figures are presented in table 8.
[2] Includes $60–65 million for U.N. operations in the Congo and $1–2 million for international organizations in Africa in FY 1962 and about $35 million for both categories in FY 1963.

Source: Agency for International Development.

AID requests to Congress for fiscal year 1963 were predicated upon five main principles:

- Economic growth is a long-term process; primary responsibility rests on the aid-receiving countries whose governments are encouraged by AID to engage in comprehensive development planning and to institute "self-help" measures.
- AID must direct and limit its aid so as to supplement and complement the funds annually provided by former metropole and other free world donors (about $1.2 billion in fiscal year 1962) as well as by other U.S. programs such as Public Law 480 surplus food transactions ($150 to $200 million) and Export-Import Bank loans ($50 to $100 million). See table 8.
- The AID program should be concentrated in those countries best equipped to make economic progress. For example, about half of the proposed fiscal year 1963 development program is concentrated in Nigeria, Sudan, and Tunisia. (Multiyear commitments of $225 million, $180 million, and $10 million have been made to finance the development plans of Nigeria, Tunisia, and Tanganyika, respectively.) Furthermore, activities essential to economic advance should have priority over those that are not, regardless of their merit.
- Loans should be made in preference to grants, wherever possible. Almost half of the proposed program is for loans.
- The percentage of AID funds for U.S. goods and services should be as high as possible. It is this principle that has the most direct implications for expansion of U.S. business interests.

AID currently administers about 400 development grant projects in diverse fields. Major emphasis, however, is placed on providing the trained manpower necessary for efficient government and increased productivity. Thus, education, public administration, and agriculture are accorded high priority.

Infrastructure projects are financed by long-term, low-interest development loans. Most of the 60-odd loans now under consideration or previously authorized relate to transportation, electric power, industrial development, and water resource development.

The need for financing of local currency (or the indirect foreign exchange impact), as well as direct foreign exchange costs of development projects, is common to many African programs. This need arises from the very limited capacity for domestic savings and taxation and a pressing need to undertake internal improvements, such as roads and schools, having a high local cost component. Such local cost financing poses problems of securing maximum identification of U.S. dollar aid with U.S. exports of goods and services, as African imports from the United States generally are very low and special trade arrangements with the former metropole still prevail.

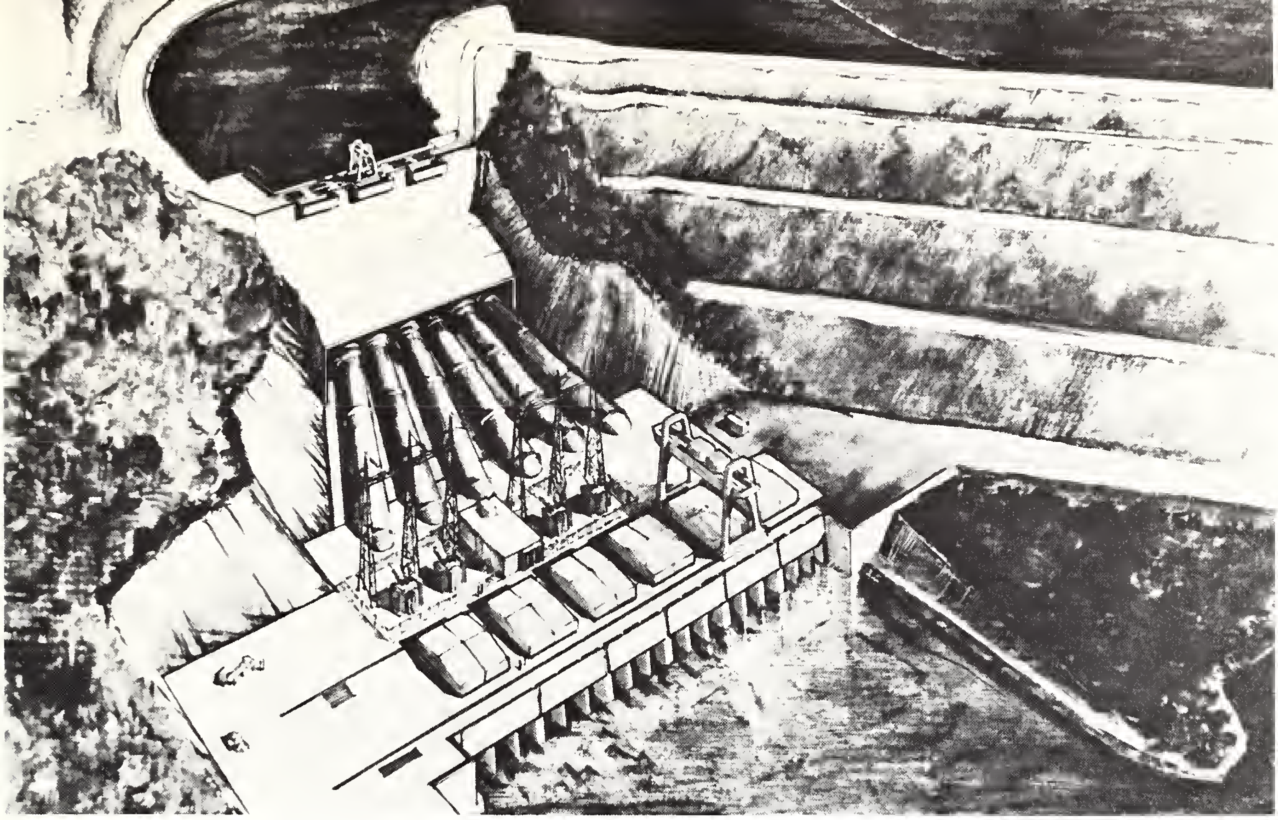
A number of means of dealing with this problem, including the use of special segregated dollar accounts, are being explored and tried. The current technique is to issue special letters of credit after prior agreement with cooperating countries. Each agreement specifies the limitations placed upon the expenditure of the dollars thus made available to finance imports of eligible goods and services from the United States.

Table 8.—*U.S. Government Economic Assistance to Africa, Fiscal Year 1962*[1]

[Obligations and loan authorizations in millions of dollars]

Country	Total FY 1962	AID	Public Law 480	Export-Import Bank	Peace Corps and other	Cumulative total FY 1946-62
Algeria	10.4	0.3	10.1			15.0
Cameroon	13.1	12.6	0.1		0.4	15.3
Central African Republic	0.2	0.2				0.2
Chad	0.3	0.3				0.4
Congo (Brazzaville)	1.2	1.2				1.3
Congo (Leopoldville)	83.7	67.0	16.7			94.6
Dahomey	2.5	0.7	1.8			5.6
Ethiopia	8.9	6.4	2.0		0.5	117.8
Gabon	0.4	0.4				0.5
Ghana	130.2	64.0	0.7	65.0	0.5	156.5
Guinea	10.3	6.0	4.3			14.3
Ivory Coast	2.5	2.1			0.4	4.6
Kenya	11.4	3.2	8.2			18.5
Liberia	14.1	10.6	3.0		0.5	127.2
Libya	13.1	11.4	0.7		1.0	187.2
Malagasy Rep	0.7	0.7				1.3
Mali	2.6	2.6				5.1
Mauritania	0.1		0.1			1.6
Morocco	50.0	31.0	19.0			352.0
Niger	1.2	1.2			(2)	3.2
Nigeria	24.3	20.1	0.2	2.0	2.0	43.6
Rhodesia and Nyasaland	2.8	2.8				36.1
Rwanda and Burundi	6.1		6.1			6.1
Senegal	1.0	0.6	0.4		(2)	4.6
Sierra Leone	2.5	1.5	0.2		0.8	3.5
Somali Republic	14.2	10.5	3.3		0.4	27.4
Sudan	13.8	10.3	3.5			65.0
Tanganyika	13.4	2.5	10.6		0.3	17.6
Togo	3.8	1.2	2.5		0.1	5.8
Tunisia	48.7	28.7	19.1	0.6	0.3	293.3
Uganda	4.2	3.6	0.6			5.2
Upper Volta	1.2	1.1	0.1			3.2
Zanzibar	0.1	0.1				0.1
Regional	8.0	8.0				11.1
Total	501.1	312.9	113.3	67.6	7.3	[3]1,664.7
U.A.R. (Egypt)	224.3	42.0	182.3			628.6

[1] Excludes Republic of South Africa, French, Portuguese, Spanish, and smaller United Kingdom dependencies.
[2] Less than $50,000.
[3] Includes $19.7 million in assistance (mostly under the Marshall Plan) to dependencies of Portugal ($12.8), France ($6.0), and the United Kingdom ($0.9).


Courtesy World Bank

Sketch of $200 million Volta River hydroelectric project now under construction near Akosombo, Ghana, with financial assistance from the United States. This complex will furnish power for an aluminum smelting plant near the coastal city of Tema to be built by the Volta Aluminum Co. (VALCO). Two American aluminum companies, Kaiser and Reynolds, will have important interests in VALCO.

Although AID finances contracts with U.S. firms for engineering feasibility studies, management assistance, industrial development analysis, economic planning guidance, and other services, the greatest potential for U.S. business lies in the exporting of manufactured articles and commodities and in the identification and pursuit of investment opportunities. There are many deterrents to the expansion of U.S. exports to Africa, however—relatively small markets in individual countries, ignorance of U.S. firms about trade techniques in African areas, traditional trading patterns with former metropoles, African unfamiliarity with U.S. products, and inexperience of African personnel in procurement procedures.

Efforts are being made to shift the burden of procurement and contracting to the host government to the extent legally possible. Because of the general unfamiliarity of African Government personnel with U.S. specifications, equipment, and techniques, AID is expanding and strengthening its assistance in the procurement and supply management field through training programs, establishment of technical and catalog libraries and information centers, and other facilities. This program also could assist private sector loan recipients and local contractors in purchasing U.S. goods.

In the investment field, AID has several tools, the more important of which are direct dollar development loans to private enterprise; investment guarantees; local currency (or "Cooley") loans, feasibility and investment surveys; and support for development banks and investment centers.

The Development Finance and Private Enterprise staff of AID has been directed to encourage aggressively the formation of joint-venture arrangements between American firms and businessmen of the host countries. As a starter, one pilot country was selected in each major region of the underdeveloped world for special emphasis in the private enterprise field. In Nigeria—the pilot country chosen in Africa—at least five industries are being selected in which significant contributions to economic growth may be expected. AID and the U.S. Department of Commerce will actively encourage appropriate U.S. firms within these industries to consider new investments.

International Marketing Services for Traders in Africa

The Department of Commerce provides a host of practical international marketing aids for the new or experienced exporter. For example:

In 1962, the Department of Commerce directed more than 13,000 specific **Export Opportunities** to American companies. These "offers to purchase" U.S. goods are gathered by commercial officers at U.S. Foreign Service posts overseas. If you are not being advised of opportunities in your field—and want to be—notify your Commerce Department Field Office right away.

Trade Lists are compiled by Foreign Service officers to help U.S. manufacturers and exporters find customers, agents, distributors, licensees, and sources of supply abroad. Each list gives names, addresses, and basic information on firms handling a specific commodity in one foreign country. A summary of pertinent marketing data also is included. Single lists of **"Business Firms,"** covering all types of commodities and services, are published for most of the new African republics instead of separate commodity lists. **Trade Lists** may be purchased from any Field Office of the Department of Commerce, or from the Bureau of International Commerce, U.S. Department of Commerce, Washington 25, D.C., for $1 each.

International Commerce, the Department's weekly magazine for export-minded businessmen, reports each week on hundreds of opportunities for export sales of specific U.S. products. The subscription price of this magazine is $16 a year. Checks should go to the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

World Trade Directory Reports are available on any firm in any free-world country. Prepared by U.S. Foreign Service officers overseas, they describe the operations of the company and list products handled, firms it represents, size and reputation of the company, its capital, and other pertinent facts. Reports are available from the Field Offices or from the Bureau of International Commerce, Department of Commerce, Washington 25, D.C. Price: $1 each.

Trade Contact Surveys also are made for American business firms by Foreign Service posts to help them find aggressive sales agents and representatives overseas. On request, a canvass of a particular foreign city will be made and a report obtained on at least three companies which meet an American firm's specific requirements. A charge of $50 is made for each survey.

The **Agency Index,** maintained in most Foreign Service posts, enables commercial officers abroad to put prospective foreign buyers in prompt touch with local sources of supply for U.S. products and services. The **Index** contains information supplied voluntarily by U.S. manufacturers and exporters about their agents, distributors, and licensees in foreign countries. Special Agency Index cards (form IA–30) are available to all U.S. firms interested in supplying data on their representatives abroad for use by commercial officers in answering inquiries from foreign businessmen. The forms are obtainable without charge from Department of Commerce Field Offices or from the Bureau of International Commerce, U.S. Department of Commerce, Washington 25, D.C., and will be sent to appropriate Foreign Service posts when completed.

Other sources of overseas leads for U.S. businessmen are the reports of business proposals received by **U.S. Trade Missions, Trade Centers,** and international **Trade Fairs.** All leads are available through the Department's Field Offices.

With the aid of their extensive files and new data received daily, Field Offices can help U.S. manufacturers to determine which countries are the best potential customers for their products, provide information on any country's import regulations and tariffs, exchange controls and other regulations that may be applicable to a company's products, and arrange for U.S. businessmen to consult specialists in Washington.

CHAPTER IV

Export Outlook Contrasts in Selected Countries

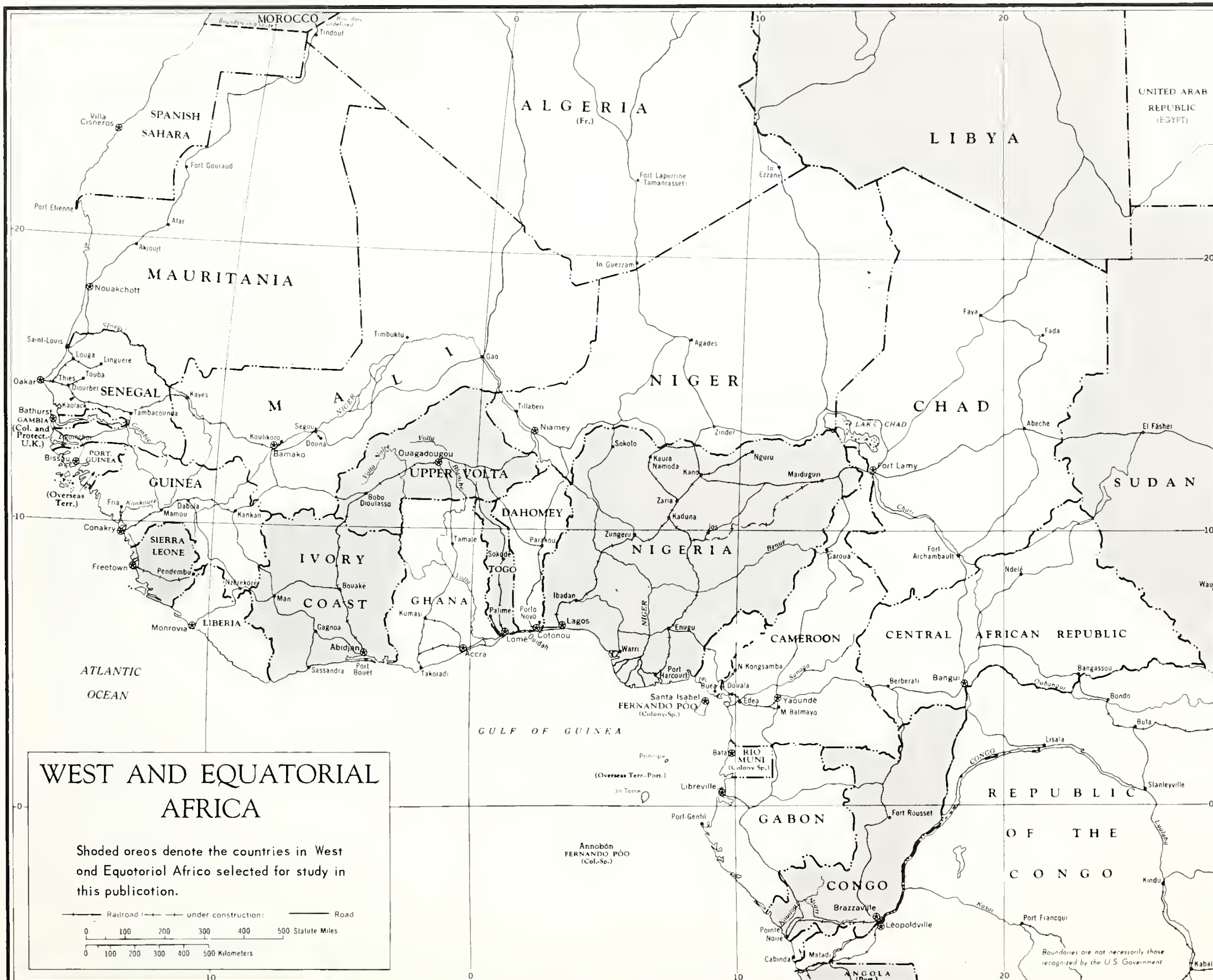
BECAUSE AFRICA consists of a number of countries in various stages of economic, political, and social development, the U.S. exporter is offered many distinct export markets, with a wide range of needs and potentialities.

Problems which hamper efforts to increase U.S. exports to specific countries include such factors as legislative impediments, discriminatory trade controls, monetary controls, inexperience of Africans in foreign trading, predominance of large expatriate companies favoring European sources, state enterprise orientation, limited internal distributional systems, and the one-crop economy.

Some of these problems are institutional in nature and cannot easily be overcome by individual exporters; others, however, simply require aggressive sales promotional efforts for effective results.

This chapter discusses these problems in countries specifically selected not only to highlight sharp contrasts in overall export outlooks but also to illustrate the various marketing techniques which might be required on the part of individual exporters to minimize or overcome these problems.

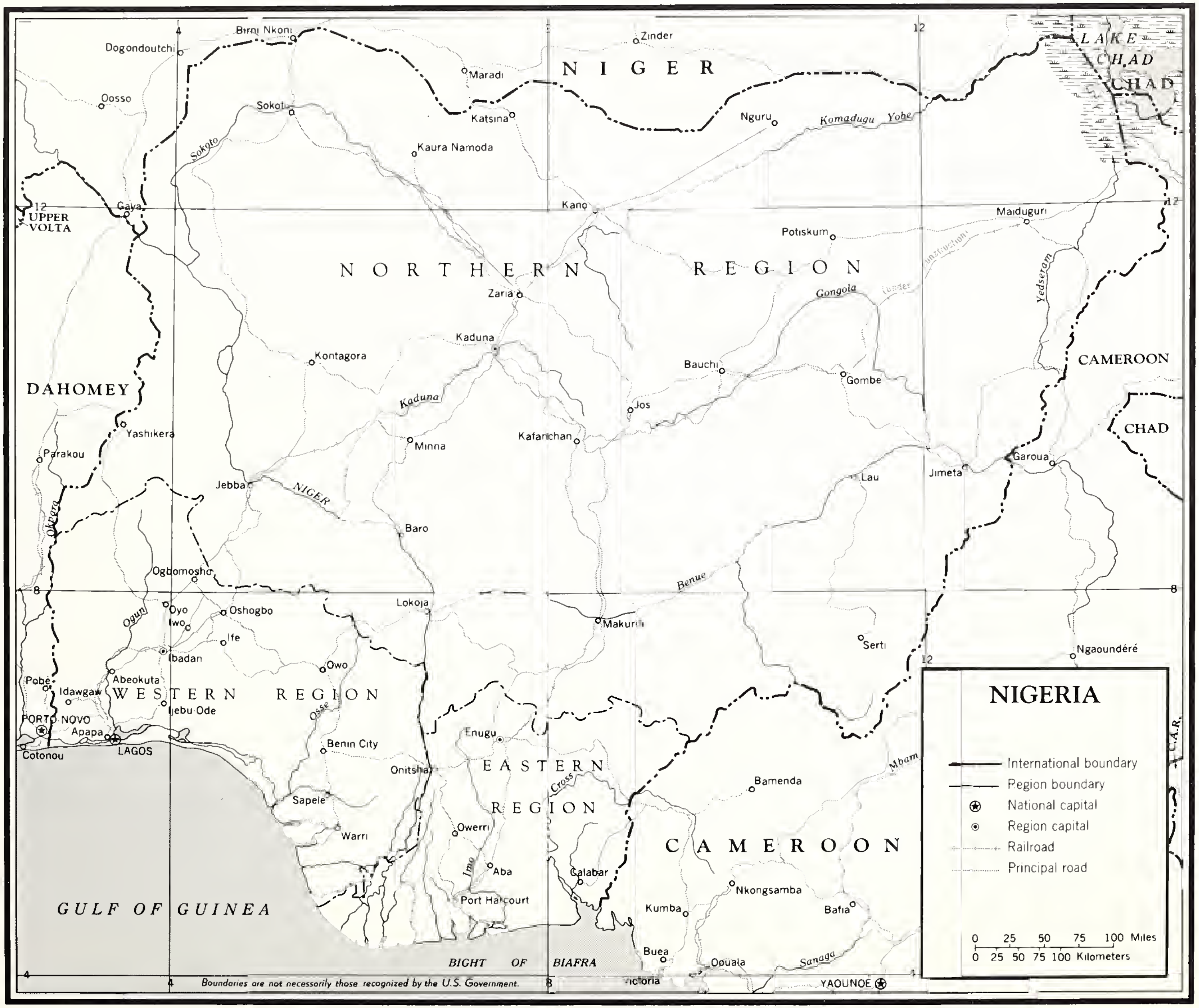
Trade problems are discussed at a meeting with a Nigerian delegation headed by Michael A. Buba, Minister of Trade and Industry, Northern Region, and U.S. Department of Commerce officials.



WEST AND EQUATORIAL AFRICA
Shoded oreos denote the countries in West and Equotoriol Africo selected for study in this publicotion.
Railroad
under construction
Road
0 100 200 300 400 500 Statute Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500 Kilometers
Boundaries are not necessarily those recognized by the U.S. Government
MOROCCO
SPANISH SAHARA
MAURITANIA
ALGERIA (Fr.)
LIBYA
UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC (EGYPT)
MALI
NIGER
CHAD
SUDAN
SENEGAL
GAMBIA (Col. and Protect. U.K.)
PORT. GUINEA (Overseas Terr.)
GUINEA
SIERRA LEONE
LIBERIA
IVORY COAST
UPPER VOLTA
GHANA
TOGO
DAHOMEY
NIGERIA
CAMEROON
CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC
RIO MUNI (Colony Sp.)
GABON
CONGO
REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO
ANGOLA (Port.)
FERNANDO PÓO (Colony-Sp.)
(Overseas Terr.-Port.)
Annobón FERNANDO PÓO (Col.-Sp.)
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF GUINEA
LAKE CHAD
Tindouf
Villa Cisneros
Fort Gouraud
Port Etienne
Atar
Akjoujt
Nouakchott
Saint-Louis
Louga
Linguere
Dakar
Thies
Touba
Diourbel
Kaolack
Tambacounda
Bathurst
Ziguinchor
Bissau
Kayes
Kankan
Fria
Mamou
Dabola
Conakry
Freetown
Pendembu
Monrovia
Nzerekore
Man
Bouake
Gagnoa
Abidjan
Sassandra
Port Bouet
Timbuktu
Gao
Segou
Douna
Koulikoro
Bamako
Bobo Dioulasso
Ouagadougou
Tamale
Kumasi
Takoradi
Accra
Sokode
Palime
Lome
Porto Novo
Cotonou
Ouidah
Parakou
Tillaberi
Niamey
In Guezzam
Fort Laperrine Tamanrasset
In Ezzane
Agades
Zinder
Sokoto
Kaura Namoda
Kano
Nguru
Maiduguri
Zaria
Kaduna
Jos
Zungeru
Ibadan
Lagos
Warri
Enugu
Port Harcourt
Garoua
Fort Lamy
Faya
Fada
Abeche
El Fasher
Wau
Fort Archambault
Ndelé
Berberati
Bangui
Bangassou
Bondo
Buta
Lisala
Stanleyville
Kindu
Kabalo
N Kongsamba
Buea
Douala
Edea
Yaounde
M Balmayo
Santa Isabel
Bata
Libreville
Port-Gentil
Fort Rousset
Brazzaville
Léopoldville
Pointe Noire
Cabinda
Matadi
Port Francqui
Niger
Volta
Benue
Chari
Senegal
Gambia
Oubangui
Congo
Lualaba
Kasai
35167 6-61

Part 1

EXPORT OUTLOOK: WEST AFRICA



NIGERIA
International boundary
Region boundary
National capital
Region capital
Railroad
Principal road
0 25 50 75 100 Miles
0 25 50 75 100 Kilometers
NIGER
NORTHERN REGION
WESTERN REGION
EASTERN REGION
DAHOMEY
UPPER VOLTA
CAMEROON
CHAD
LAKE CHAD
GULF OF GUINEA
BIGHT OF BIAFRA
Birni Nkoni
Dogondoutchi
Zinder
Maradi
Oosso
Sokoto
Katsina
Kaura Namoda
Nguru
Komadugu Yobe
Gaya
Kano
Maiduguri
Potiskum
Zaria
Gongola
Yedseram
Kaduna
Kontagora
Bauchi
Gombe
Jos
Yashikera
Parakou
Minna
Kafanchan
Jebba
NIGER
Jimeta
Garoua
Lau
Baro
Ogbomosho
Benue
Oyo
Iwo
Oshogbo
Ife
Ogun
Lokoja
Makurdi
Serti
Ngaoundéré
Ibadan
Owo
Abeokuta
Pobe
Idawgaw
Ijebu-Ode
Osse
PORTO NOVO
Apapa
LAGOS
Cotonou
Benin City
Enugu
Onitsha
Cross
Sapele
Warri
Owerri
Bamenda
Mbam
Imo
Aba
Calabar
Port Harcourt
Nkongsamba
Kumba
Bafia
Buea
Douala
Sanaga
Victoria
YAOUNDE
C.A.R.
Boundaries are not necessarily those recognized by the U.S. Government.

FEDERATION OF NIGERIA

By Arthur C. Lillig
Former Commercial Attache, American Embassy, Lagos

Arthur C. Lillig is a graduate of the University of Washington. Prior to his service as a Naval Lieutenant in World War II, he served in the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service. Since joining the Foreign Service in 1947, he has served in diplomatic and consular assignments in Poland, Germany, Malaya, the United Kingdom, and Nigeria.

NIGERIA, WITH its 40 million people, represents about one-sixth of the total population of the African continent. It is a large country—about 356,669 square miles—and possesses a wide variety of natural resources ranging from petroleum, tin, and columbite to palm oil, timber, cotton, hides, and spices. During the postwar period the maintenance of import restrictions on dollar goods greatly limited our exports to that market. These restrictions now have been lifted, however, and U.S. goods face the problem of being introduced into a competitive market where many types and brands have not had previous exposure.

THE MARKET

In 1961, Nigeria imported a wide variety of goods, valued at over $622 million [1]—a figure roughly equivalent in that year to three-fourths of the total value of U.S. exports to the entire African continent, excluding the United Arab Republic (Egypt). Yet Nigeria's imports from the United States in 1961 amounted to only $26.8 million. This did not compare favorably with the figures for other countries—United Kingdom, $238.5 million; Japan, $85 million, the Federal Republic of Germany, $46 milion.

Total Nigerian exports from all countries in 1961 amounted to $486 million—a $10.6 million increase over the preceding year, and an impressive $138 million over the 1957 figure.

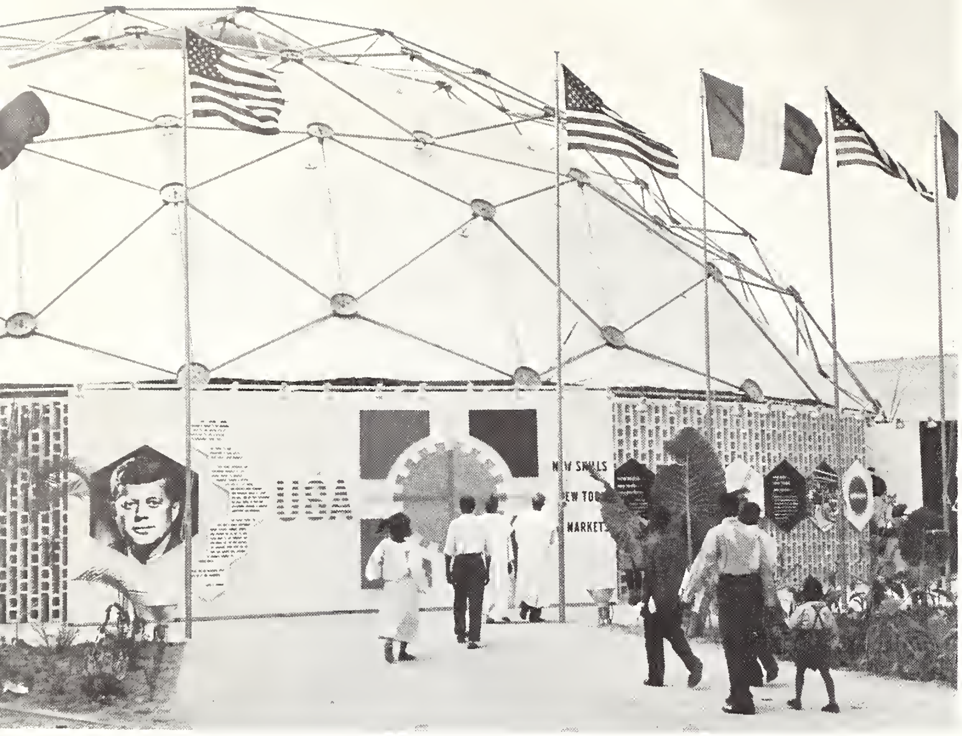
Nigeria's per capita income is still relatively low—probably about $85. Consequently, as a mass market for consumer goods, Nigeria must be treated as a low- or medium-priced market. Nevertheless, the diversity of its imports and future prospects for sustained growth make it a market worthy of attention and greater aggressiveness on the part of U.S. businessmen.

Although the market for U.S. consumer products in Nigeria is wide, there is little direct contact or experience with American goods and services. There is a high regard for the "Made in U.S.A." label among African businessmen and consumers, but this label is rarely seen in Nigeria.

OBSTACLES

Some 60 agents (large non-Nigerian companies) account for most of Nigeria's imports, and one-fourth of this group, alone, accounts for approximately 75 percent. Relatively few of the companies have proper facilities for technical repairs of industrial goods. Most of these expatriate

[1] Nigeria Federal Ministry of Commerce and Industry figures, converted at the rate of US$2.80 to the Nigerian pound.



Nigeria—gateway to African markets—holds
Modern geodesic dom

European representatives are heavily loaded with accounts and cannot devote as much time to each account as they should. Commercial ties with European suppliers are strong—and it will require special efforts to untie these traditional bonds. Expatriate houses are beginning to show greater interest in U.S. products, particularly those which might be sold in connection with AID-financed [2] projects, however.

In contrast to these large trading companies, some of the smaller firms (both African and non-African) which have only one or a few agency lines often do a more aggressive sales-promotion job. Many of them desire to buy directly from American exporters and bypass the large expatriate houses. Unfortunately however, many are inexperienced in foreign trade and have limited financing.

PROSPECTS

United States capital goods of most types enjoy a good reputation in the country, although the United States faces some difficulties in competing with the United Kingdom and European exporters because of traditional trade patterns, higher original costs, transportation costs, and relative inaccessibility to the Nigerian market. American heavy earthmoving equipment and mining machinery are particularly well known and used in Nigeria, although much of it comes from the U.K. branches of American manufacturers. As with some types of consumer goods, a selling job is required to convince buyers that the higher initial cost of some U.S. goods is more than compensated for by their superior quality and durability. Adequate servicing and spare parts must be made available, of course. Some of the capital goods which have great potential in Nigeria are road construction and earthmoving machinery, agricultural equipment, machine tools, construction materials, and machinery to process Nigeria's primary products.

Consumer items for which there are good sales prospects include inexpensive lightweight clothing, small refrigerators and room air conditioners (230 volts, 50 cycles), canned and frozen foods, compact passenger cars, pharmaceuticals and cosmetics, office supplies and equipment, inexpensive jewelry, and cotton and washable synthetic textiles.

Many countries have greatly increased their exports to Nigeria during the past 5 years. Canada, Belgium, France, Italy, and Japan, for example, have virtually doubled their trade with this market during that period. The growing Nigerian market offers an equally challenging opportunity for aggressive American exporters and a vigorous and persistent sales approach will bring rewarding results.

[2] See Chapter III.

first international fair at Lagos, 1962.
used U.S. Exhibition.

American products arouse interest at International Trade Fairs in Bulawayo, Southern Rhodesia; Lagos, Nigeria; and Tripoli, Libya, 1962.

Eugene M. Braderman, Director of the Bureau of International Commerce, discusses the Department's recently revamped weekly magazine, *International Commerce*, with Michael A. Buba, Minister of Trade and Industry, Northern Region, Nigeria. Far right is Mr. Goodwin Onyegbula, Counselor of the Nigerian Embassy in Washington, and on the far left is Mr. Y. Gobir, Permanent Secretary of the Nigerian Ministry of Trade and Industry.

REPUBLIC OF UPPER VOLTA

By Anthony S. Dalsimer
Vice Consul, American Embassy, Ouagadougou

Anthony S. Dalsimer is a graduate of Grinnell College and holds a masters degree from the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy. After serving as a Foreign Affairs Officer in the Department of State's Bureau of Economic Affairs, he was assigned to Ouagadougou in early 1961.

IN CONSIDERING the problem of expanding sales of U.S. products in Upper Volta we are taking, in some respects, a limited case. Upper Volta is a small country, and any expansion of exports is obviously limited by the size of the market—in terms of effective purchasing power, Upper Volta might equal a U.S. city of 100,000 to 200,000. Consider, by way of illustration, a few of the country's vital statistics:

Population: 4.25 million
Size: 120,000 square miles
Per capita income: under $40
Annual budget: $28 million [1]
Annual imports: $28 million
Annual exports: $3.5 million

Although Upper Volta may not represent a typical case, general market conditions are analogous to those found in many other former French colonies.

TRADE FACTORS ENCOUNTERED

One of the most evident problems facing U.S. exporters in Upper Volta is that of legislative impediments in the form of discriminatory tariffs and quantitative restrictions.[2] Leaving aside obvious non-Voltaic legislation such as FAC and FED (French and European Economic Community development agencies, respectively) rules that one may equate with AID "Buy American" policies, a considerable number of regulations act to the disfavor of American trade. A French commission annually allocates the limited foreign exchange availabilities, which are expressed in New Francs and divided into Common Market and "other" categories for sources of purchases. The latter group includes two subdivisions—(1) countries with which bilateral accords are in effect and from which only specified merchandise may be imported, and (2) a "global quota" which includes all other countries and for which no precise breakdown is made of available funds. There is also a list of "freed" items which may be imported without restriction.

United States exports may compete for only a share of this global quota and, even then, there are quantitative limits on certain items, such as vehicles. Additional handicaps for U.S. firms are the 30-percent reduction in customs duty granted to goods originating in EEC countries, and the complete exemption from this charge granted to franc zone goods. Certain non-French imports are further discriminated against by being singled out for exceptional entry charges (e.g., cigarettes).

A second characteristic problem in tropical Africa, which applies in Upper Volta, is the shortage of indigenous personnel experienced in foreign trade. There are almost no Voltaic entrepreneurs.

[1] Rate of exchange: 246.8 CFA francs=US$1.

[2] The United States Government is fully aware of the impediments to the American businessman created by some of the regulations obtaining in a number of African countries which were formerly French overseas territories. As in the past, the U.S. Government will continue to press by all appropriate means for the elimination of such barriers.

679455 O—63——3

Courtesy Embassy of Nigeria

Aerial view across north end of Nigeria's leading harbor, Lagos.

Another typical problem is the dominance in the commercial sector of large expatriate firms favoring European sources. In Upper Volta, a "Big 3"[3] control an estimated 60 to 70 percent of all trade; with the inclusion of a few of the other large, European-oriented houses, the figure begins to approach 90 percent of the import market.

A number of related problems complicate the expansion of U.S. sales. The most important, is the fact that the majority of these commercial houses are French and obviously favor handling traditional lines of goods and maintaining traditional supply channels. Moreover, the local organizations have very little autonomy or decision-making power. Control is centralized in the head office in Paris or elsewhere and it is there, not at the local branches, that action is taken on matters such as acceptance of a new line or representation. Because of their near monopoly status, these firms represent so many manufacturers that no particular effort on behalf of any one company is necessary. That which we would consider normal service is unavailable—almost no parts are stocked, no attempt is made to develop sales, and, of course, prices range from high to exorbitant in a sort of alliance against open competition.

State enterprise orientation, a fourth element often observed in less developed economies, is no problem in Upper Volta. Rather, the Government's orientation is strongly in favor of private enterprise.

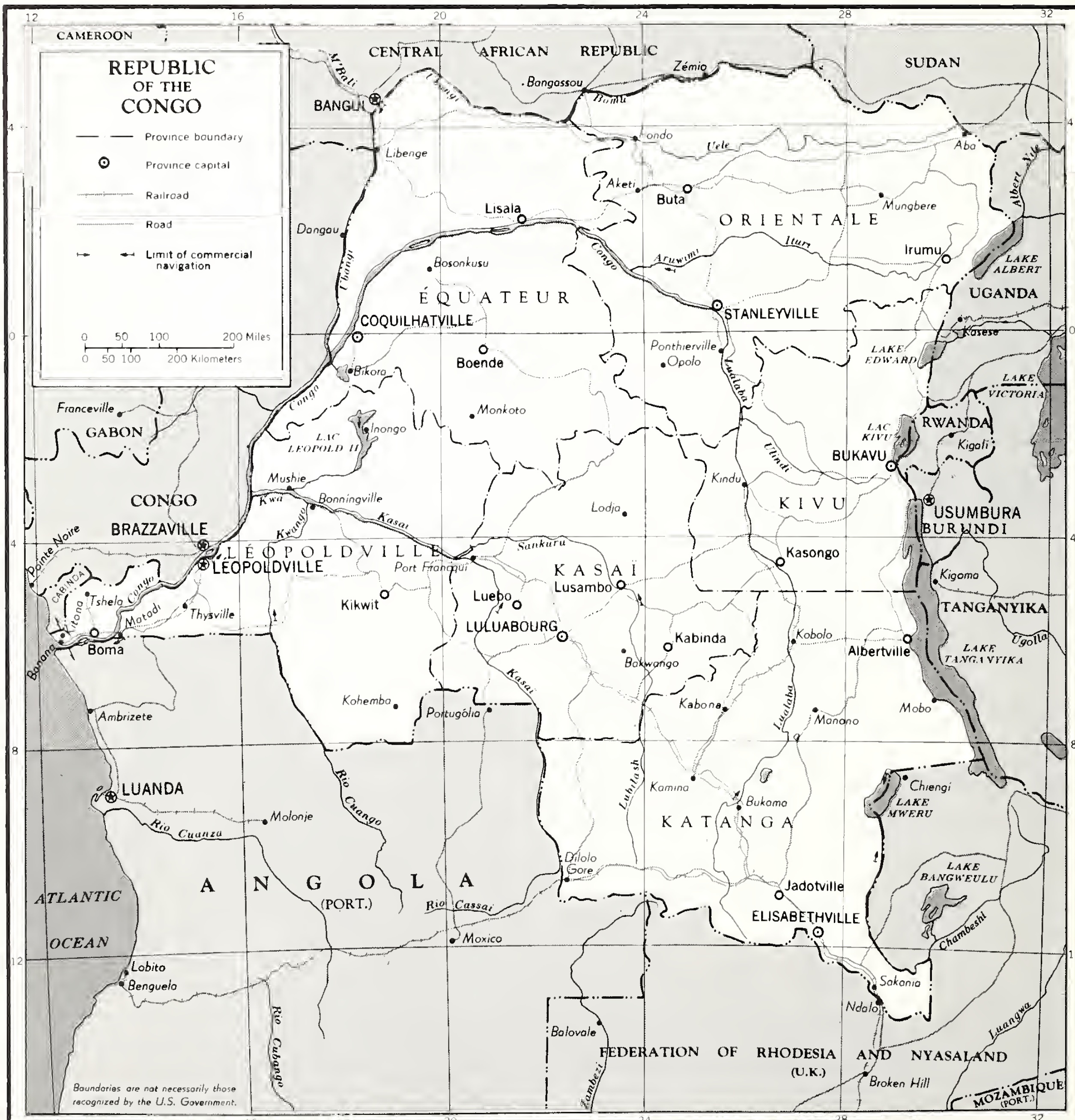
The fifth typical problem is a limited distribution system, which in Upper Volta is further aggravated by the lack of developed internal markets.

The most noticeable problem area in Upper Volta, and the one in which a given effort would provide the greatest return at present, concerns an interrelated group of miscellanea of which the keystone may well be *doing business in French.* Encompassed here are sales promotion, dealer contacts, advertising, service and maintenance, product labeling, and identification. Other factors such as spare parts availability and adaptation of goods to local market conditions are areas where U.S. businesses often have a good deal of room for improvement.

[3] Compagnie Francaise de L'Afrique Occidentale (CFAO), Societe Commerciale de L'Quest Africaine (SCOA), and Compagnie Francaise de la Cote D'Ivoire (CFCI).

Part 2

EXPORT OUTLOOK: CENTRAL AFRICA

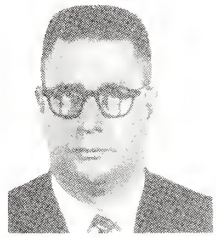


REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO
Province boundary
Province capital
Railroad
Road
Limit of commercial navigation
200 Miles
200 Kilometers
CAMEROON
CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC
SUDAN
UGANDA
RWANDA
BURUNDI
TANGANYIKA
GABON
CONGO BRAZZAVILLE
ANGOLA (PORT.)
FEDERATION OF RHODESIA AND NYASALAND (U.K.)
MOZAMBIQUE (PORT.)
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ORIENTALE
ÉQUATEUR
KIVU
KASAÏ
KATANGA
LÉOPOLDVILLE
BANGUI
Bangassou
Zémio
Libenge
Lisala
Aketi
Buta
Mungbere
Aba
Irumu
Dangau
Bosonkusu
COQUILHATVILLE
STANLEYVILLE
Boende
Bikoro
Ponthierville
Opolo
Monkoto
Inongo
Mushie
Bonningville
Kindu
BUKAVU
Kigali
USUMBURA
Lodja
Kasongo
Kigoma
LÉOPOLDVILLE
Port Francqui
Kikwit
Luebo
Lusambo
LULUABOURG
Kabinda
Bakwanga
Kobolo
Albertville
Kohemba
Portugália
Kabona
Manono
Mobo
Kamina
Bukama
Chiengi
Dilolo
Gore
Jadotville
ELISABETHVILLE
Sakania
Ndola
Broken Hill
Balovale
Mexico
Lobito
Benguela
LUANDA
Molonje
Ambrizete
Boma
Matadi
Thysville
Tshela
Franceville
Kasese
LAKE ALBERT
LAKE EDWARD
LAKE VICTORIA
LAC KIVU
LAKE TANGANYIKA
LAKE MWERU
LAKE BANGWEULU
LAC LEOPOLD II
Boundaries are not necessarily those recognized by the U.S. Government.

REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO (LEOPOLDVILLE)

By *Michael P. Hoyt*
Commercial Officer, American Embassy, Leopoldville

Following 4 years of service in the U.S. Air Force, Michael P. Hoyt graduated from the University of Chicago and subsequently obtained his M.A. from the University of Illinois. He entered the Foreign Service in 1956 and has served at Karachi, Casablanca, Tel Aviv, and Leopoldville.



PREINDEPENDENCE TRADING PATTERNS

The Republic of the Congo, formerly known as the Belgian Congo, became independent in June 1960. The area occupied by the new nation was first organized as one political and administrative entity by the Treaty of Berlin of 1885, which provided for economic and commercial equality of treatment in the Congo for goods and services from all countries. This "open-door" policy was reiterated by the Treaty of St. German en Laye of 1919, to which the United States was a signatory. Historically, however, trade in the Congo was dominated by large, expatriate Belgian firms, which undoubtedly benefited from the fact that Belgium was responsible for the administration of the Congo. In spite of the official "open-door" policy, institutional arrangements in the importing field tended to favor Belgian firms and made it necessary for foreign investment to be made generally through Belgian interests.

The Belgians created one of the largest and most efficient distribution systems in Africa. Goods were imported from Europe mainly for workers on plantations and for factories—often owned by a single firm or financial group in Europe—which produced for export. The United States was able to establish itself as the second largest supplier to the Congo market, though far behind Belgium. American goods which found their way into this market were normally imported by these European companies. The local companies, although supplied primarily from Europe, traditionally imported those commodities from the United States which they found most suitable and most economical.

In the years after World War II, imports from the United States averaged 20 percent of total Congolese imports, although immediately prior to independence the American share of the market was declining rapidly (see table 9). American investment during this period was not large in comparison to European investment but, nevertheless, was important in some sectors.

CURRENT ECONOMIC SITUATION

With the achievement of independence in June 1960, the Congo Government was in a position to advocate a diversification of foreign investment. An Investment Guaranty Agreement between the Congo and the United States was signed in November 1962.

The breakdown of public administration that occurred after independence caused a disruption of the finely structured import distribution and export production system. Foreign exchange reserves were depleted rapidly, and exports declined drastically. The United Nations was in-

Courtesy World Bank

Modern tracklaying equipment speeds the construction of new railways in West Africa.

vited in with the primary task of restoring order and political stability. The United States began a large-scale assistance program consisting of AID grants through the United Nations for support of imports (approximately $81 million committed as of March 1963, of which nearly $76 million was tied to procurement in the United States) and sales for local currency of surplus agricultural commodities, for an amount equal to $42.8 million. The extreme scarcity of foreign exchange available to the Government of the Congo led to the institution of a strict system of licensing for all imports, and licensing of goods not tied to U.S. aid was curtailed drastically. This resulted in a relative increase of American exports to the Congo.

OBSTACLES TO U.S. TRADE EXPANSION

There remain serious impediments to the expansion of American investment and trade with the Congo. In spite of American financial assistance, scarcity of foreign exchange persists. This has considerably reduced total importations into the country. Although the relative American share of the market increased greatly, the absolute increase was not substantial.

Other obstacles to the expansion of American trade in the Congo stem from the presence in the country of large, expatriate, European-oriented trading firms. The American commercial presence is still inadequate and purchases from the United States are sometimes made through the Belgian home office. American investments are extremely small in comparison with European ones, which naturally affects the orientation and control of imports. There are few American commercial import agents with long-term interests in maintaining ties with suppliers in the United States. Under the present system, many commodities imported into the Congo must be purchased in the United States regardless of price considerations. Some of the traditional importers are taking up American representation which may be dropped or allowed to remain inactive when AID funds are no longer available.

Table 9.—*American Share of Congo Market, 1950–62*

Item	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960 [1]	1961	1962 [2]
Total Congolese imports [3]	9.3	15.2	19.8	18.1	17.8	18.5	20.1	21.4	17.6	15.0	--------	6.5	2.9
Imports from the United States [3]	2.4	3.5	5.0	3.5	4.2	3.6	4.2	3.8	2.6	1.9	--------	1.0	.6
Percentage of total	25.6	22.7	25.1	19.3	23.6	19.4	20.9	17.8	14.8	12.7	--------	15.4	20.7

[1] Official figures for 1960 not available.
[2] First 3 months of 1962.
[3] In billions of Congolese francs. Official rate of exchange: from 1950 to November 1961, 50 francs=US$1; from November 1961 to present, 65 francs=US$1.
Source: Data compiled by American Embassy, Leopoldville.

METHODS OF U.S. TRADE EXPANSION

The dominance of the traditional firms has allowed few Africans to penetrate the import and distribution trade in the past. The African now is being encouraged to enter international trade, but his inexperience presents a serious obstacle.

To increase their share of the Congo market, American companies should: (1) Provide the African businessman with technical services and advice; and (2) establish sound American representation lasting beyond AID grants, by concentrating on American commodities which are suitable for the market and competitive with those from European sources.

PROSPECTS

The AID assistance program and Public Law 480 sales are promoting the expansion of American exports both directly and indirectly, and contributing to the reactivation of the economy. Such programs as imports of trucks and the use of counterpart funds for road maintenance are directed to the reconstruction of the transportation and distribution system. The importation of goods and industrial equipment contributes to the resurgence of exports, resulting in increased foreign exchange earnings and increased ability to purchase American products. Expansion of trade also should result from the reunification of Katanga with the rest of the country, since Katanga previously provided about half the foreign exchange earnings of the former Belgian Congo and since the area in the past also was the major source of demand in the Congo for American products—particularly for mining equipment.

Finally, technical assistance programs, by raising the level of African participation in commerce, also should contribute to the increase in the volume of U.S. exports to the Congo.

Courtesy World Bank

Urban development, Leopoldville, Republic of the Congo.

Courtesy World Bank

Modern technology employed in railroad construction, Gabon, Equatorial Africa.

ANGOLA AND MOZAMBIQUE

By Paul F. Canney
American Consul, Lourenço Marques

Paul F. Canney is a graduate of Harvard University. He entered the Foreign Service from the transportation industry in 1956, and had previously served in the U.S. Army for 4 years. Prior to his assignment to Mozambique in 1960, Mr. Canney served as Vice Consul at the American Embassy in Lima, Peru.

MANY OBSTACLES, both legal and traditional, will have to be modified or eliminated if U.S. exports to Portuguese Africa are to be expanded. The question of increased trade between the United States and Portugal's overseas Provvinces of Mozambique and Angola is also of some relevance to the problem of expanded trade relations between Portugal and the United States. Many of the basic impediments preventing a further increase in exports to Portugal apply in Africa as well.

Import restrictions on dollar goods, caused by a dollar shortage, are the principal impediments to increased trade with Portuguese Africa.

For the past 35 years, U.S. exports to Mozambique have always represented 10 percent or less of total Provincial imports and in that period such trade has always been favorable to the United States. In other words, the value of imports from the United States has always been greater than the value of Mozambique exports to the United States. The reality, therefore, is that Mozambique cannot easily permit increased imports of dollar goods without earning more dollars. This has proved largely impossible because, with the exception of cashew nuts, the United States is not a significant market for agricultural produce such as cotton, rice, and corn which constitute the major portion of Mozambique's exports.

However, even if Mozambique's trade with the United States were favorable, there is no assurance that U.S. exports would have greater entree into this market. Angola has traditionally had a favorable balance of trade with the United States because of large coffee exports to America, but the dollar exchange thus earned must be deposited to a central fund in Lisbon for all Portugal and Portuguese territories. This fund later is distributed according to the essential needs of the various territories. This monetary control system holds true for Mozambique as well. As a result, imports of U.S. goods into both Provinces are allowed only for items that official Government agencies consider essential.

Most capital or development equipment, such as roadbuilding machinery, trucks, and tractors, continue to be imported from the United States without many restrictions, although the latest trend has been to purchase from Western European suppliers when the particular model required is available there. Nearly all consumer goods—passenger cars, for example—are considered nonessential and their import from the United States is allowed only in exceptional cases.

In its own purchases, the Portuguese Government in both Angola and Mozambique is leaning increasingly to European countries rather than to the United States because of the dollar-shortage problem, and because of European regional arrangements, among other reasons.

While dollar shortage and monetary controls are formidable barriers, there are others which include Portuguese Africa's traditionally large trade with the metropole, a pattern in which provincial tariff structures have granted Portuguese-manufactured or Portuguese-assembled goods preferential treatment. In most instances the duties for metropolitan goods are half those for similar foreign goods. With the activation of the escudo zone free trade area, which has been under consideration by the Portuguese Government for some time, goods manufactured or assembled in any Portuguese territory will enjoy overwhelming advantage in any other Portuguese territory.

Mozambique and Angolan licensing controls also grant preferences. First preference in granting import permits in Portuguese Africa is given to Portuguese products, second preference to OECD[1] goods, and third preference to other currency area imports, including dollar area goods. It is therefore unlikely that the U.S. share of the Mozambique-Angola market can be dramatically increased in the near future.

The size of the market for U.S. consumer durable and nondurable goods in Mozambique and Angola is discouraging. With a combined population of over 10.5 million, potential consumers number only a fraction of this amount. This small market is bound to increase over the coming years but only slowly. Another adverse factor is that the largest agricultural, commercial, and industrial units in Mozambique are owned and operated by large European companies, many with headquarters in Lisbon, London, and other European capitals. The same situation prevails in Angola. Forty percent of all Mozambique sisal is grown on German-owned plantations; 45 percent of Mozambique sugar is grown on one British-owned estate; all Mozambique coal is mined at a Belgian-owned mine; and all Mozambique copra is processed on European-owned coconut plantations. That such organizations should favor European sources when purchasing machinery and equipment can come as no surprise.

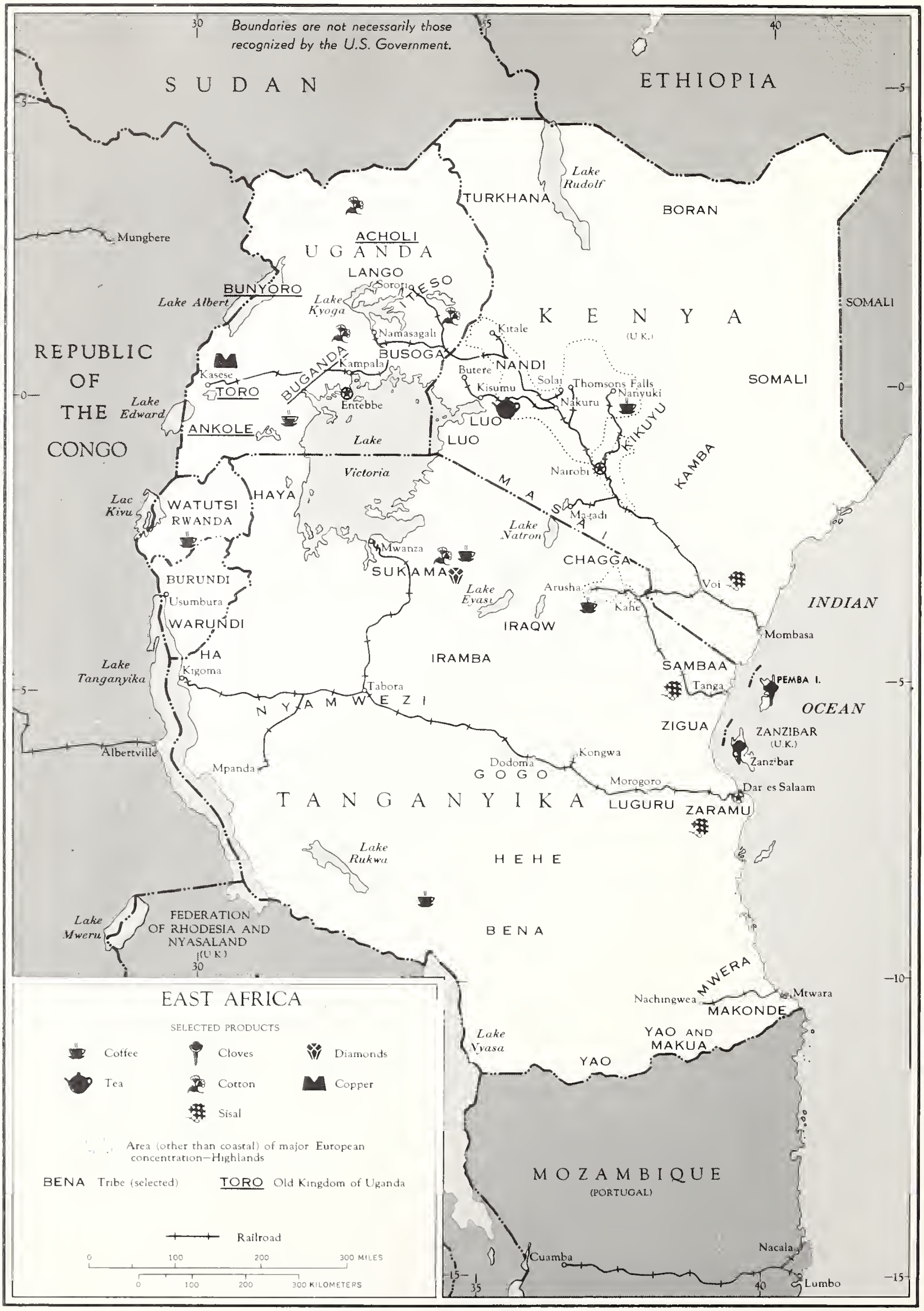
[1] Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.

Other specific obstacles facing trade expansion efforts include the reluctance of U.S. manufacturers to offer what local Government agencies consider favorable credit terms, i.e., little or no down payment, deferred payment periods up to 5 years, and very low interest. It is quite probable that the United States is losing significant amounts of business for such items as tractors, railway fixed materials and rolling stock, and electronic equipment to suppliers from France, Japan, and especially the Federal Republic of Germany because of the credit question. The understandable hesitancy of U.S. exporters to consider such terms, combined with the reluctance of Portuguese Government agencies to consider such U.S. or international credit sources as the Export-Import Bank and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, means that we are being increasingly squeezed out of the capital goods market in both Mozambique and Angola. Finally, there is the old cliche of the high prices of American-manufactured goods. While true in many instances that high price is used as an excuse or cover for more hidden reasons for not buying American products, it is nevertheless true that U.S. exporters do lose out in the Portuguese African market for that very reason on some products. Specific cases abound in Mozambique in which the price factor led to the purchasing of European or Japanese merchandise, even though in many cases the American product was the one preferred.

In spite of these adverse factors, however, the U.S. exporter can help maintain and increase U.S. exports to Portuguese Africa by improving the performance of traditional services. Valuable assistance available to the exporter include the extensive commercial services at U.S. Foreign Service posts, including commercial library facilities; the publication of local trade and investment opportunities through the Department of Commerce; sophisticated market surveys; and information on local and U.S. trade. U.S. export firms having agents in Portuguese Africa should maintain a continuing interest in this market, through stimulating their local agents, appointing local rather than regional representatives, and maintaining up-to-date liaison with the Foreign Service posts.

Part 3

EXPORT OUTLOOK: EAST AFRICA



Boundaries are not necessarily those recognized by the U.S. Government.
SUDAN
ETHIOPIA
UGANDA
KENYA
(U.K.)
TANGANYIKA
REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO
SOMALI
MOZAMBIQUE
(PORTUGAL)
FEDERATION OF RHODESIA AND NYASALAND
(U.K.)
INDIAN OCEAN
PEMBA I.
ZANZIBAR
(U.K.)
ACHOLI
LANGO
BUNYORO
TESO
BUSOGA
BUGANDA
TORO
ANKOLE
TURKHANA
BORAN
NANDI
LUO
KIKUYU
KAMBA
MASAI
CHAGGA
HAYA
WATUTSI
RWANDA
BURUNDI
WARUNDI
HA
SUKUMA
IRAQW
IRAMBA
SAMBAA
ZIGUA
NYAMWEZI
GOGO
LUGURU
ZARAMU
HEHE
BENA
MWERA
MAKONDE
YAO AND MAKUA
YAO
Lake Rudolf
Lake Albert
Lake Kyoga
Lake Edward
Lake Victoria
Lac Kivu
Lake Natron
Lake Eyasi
Lake Tanganyika
Lake Rukwa
Lake Mweru
Lake Nyasa
Mungbere
Soroti
Namasagali
Kitale
Kasese
Kampala
Entebbe
Butere
Kisumu
Solai
Thomsons Falls
Nanyuki
Nakuru
Nairobi
Magadi
Mwanza
Arusha
Kahe
Voi
Mombasa
Usumbura
Kigoma
Tabora
Tanga
Zanzibar
Albertville
Mpanda
Dodoma
Kongwa
Morogoro
Dar es Salaam
Nachingwea
Mtwara
Cuamba
Nacala
Lumbo
EAST AFRICA
SELECTED PRODUCTS
Coffee
Cloves
Diamonds
Tea
Cotton
Copper
Sisal
Area (other than coastal) of major European concentration—Highlands
BENA Tribe (selected)
TORO Old Kingdom of Uganda
Railroad
0 100 200 300 MILES
0 100 200 300 KILOMETERS

EAST AFRICA

Kenya, Tanganyika, and Uganda form a free trade area and, together with the small Island of Zanzibar, constitute the region formerly known as British East Africa.

Tanganyika achieved its independence in December 1961, while Uganda became independent in October 1962. Kenya, though nominally still a colony, has made steady progress toward self-government.

In view of the absence of internal tariff barriers and the existence of common regional demand characteristics, the authors of the next two studies, although stationed respectively in Kenya and Zanzibar, address their commentaries generally to the East African market.

Courtesy World Bank

Port of Mombasa. This Indian Ocean port is one of the chief ports of the 3-nation former British East African economic and customs union comprising already independent Tanganyika and Uganda, and Kenya, which is scheduled for independence in the near future. The outlook for U.S. sales to this growing area is good.

Final recovery building at the Williamson Diamond Mine at Mwadui, Tanganyika.

Courtesy World Bank

Coming round the mountain: A passenger train rolls down the circular grade in the Western Rift Valley of Uganda, which compensates for an abrupt falling away of 1,000 feet in the terrain. This road connects the interior Ugandan city of Kasese with the Indian Ocean port of Mombasa, 1,080 miles away.

EAST AFRICA (AN OVERVIEW)

By *Robert L. Ware, Jr.*
Commercial Officer
American Consulate General, Nairobi

Although his Foreign Service assignments have included Sweden and Rumania, Robert L. Ware, Jr., has spent a number of years on assignments in West and East Africa. Because of his particular interest in Africa, he was selected in 1956 for special African area study at Boston University. Mr. Ware later served as Officer-in-Charge of West African Affairs in the U.S. Department of State, and as Deputy Director of the Africa Division of the Department of Commerce.

THE PROGRESS of the East African territories from colonial or trusteeship status to that of independence can be expected to affect the traditional trade patterns established during the years of metropolitan rule. Achievement of nationalistic aspirations culminating in independence, as experienced in other countries of Africa, has already shown that the need for expanding economies is generally accompanied by a reorientation of interest by the established large European trading firms as well as a redirection of traditional trade ties.

The United States business community may effectively benefit by participation in this developing and changing market through practical action at this time, or assume a minor role in what must increasingly be a growing and profitable market through lack of interest, attention, and imagination.

Until recently, exchange restrictions as well as lethargic U.S. business interests were limiting factors in the sale of U.S. products in East Africa. The former condition was overcome several years ago. If the Export Expansion Program is to be successful in East Africa, with U.S. business receiving a more equitable share of the market, certain conditions must be recognized and rectified.

A recent recession in East Africa eliminated a number of relatively inefficient businesses. Others that are not prepared to face further "risk" or transition may be expected to terminate their activities, leaving vacuums in certain areas of the commercial sector.

Increasingly, the African may be expected to assume a significant position in trade and commerce. To be effective in these changing conditions American business must not only increase trade with the indigenous African market; Africans must also be given more experience in the trade field.

U.S. business must rectify an appalling lack of knowledge of American products in East Africa. Interested firms must develop adequate market research and surveys of the requirements of the market. Healthy trade relations will never develop if based on dumping or on exporting to East Africa commodities which have been produced solely for the more highly sophisticated markets of the American continent and Europe.

In trade relations, American business must at least extend reasonable commercial courtesies to potential importers. Potential importers complain that all too often they are not afforded the simple courtesy of a reply to their letters of business inquiry.

Greater attention must be afforded to the appointment of active and qualified representatives or agents. Often agents with impressive bank balances are appointed, although they are overburdened with other accounts which they have

neither the time nor interest to promote actively. A greater effort must be expended in sales promotion, which should be no less active in Africa than in other markets.

American firms either established or contemplating entry into the African field must be prepared to stock spare parts and to offer service comparable to that in the United States.

Sales activity must be directed to overcome the impression that all U.S. products are more expensive than competing lines of other countries. While this may be the case with certain commodities, emphasis on quality and durability will certainly help improve the competitive position of the U.S. item. Prestige items in many cases outsell less expensive items in African countries—a leading brand of American dress shirts is a case in point. The medicine-man show sales technique was extremely effective in developing sales in our own country in the formative years and must not be overlooked in Africa. To assure reasonable sales, new commodities must be taken to the African, for seldom will the African come to the commodity.

Sales of U.S. products have been lost to competing sources because of the refusal of U.S. business to accommodate the local trader or importer. For example, a local importer of limited resources recently ordered a single washing machine from the United States. The order was refused by the supplier because he exported only in units of ten or more. Had the one unit been shipped, more probably would have been ordered as a result of the demand created by the single unit. The order was lost to England.

U.S. businessmen must become increasingly aware of the benefits of trading in this common market area of Kenya, Tanganyika, and Uganda.

Sales of U.S. commodities are lost to foreign competition because successful, "high pressure" sales approaches have not been followed by adherance to promised delivery dates.

Insistence on U.S. trade practices with little regard for local customs causes loss of business—practices acceptable to both importer and exporter must be adopted.

The favoring of European or non-American commodities traditionally imported to East Africa certainly can be changed. The introduction of American lines, utilizing U.S. sales techniques, and emphasizing superiority and durability, will create an increasing demand for U.S. products.

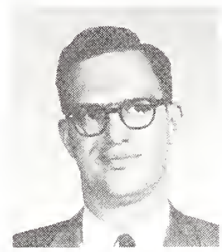
Certainly East Africa presents an underdeveloped market of considerable potential. A redirection of traditional trade ties and expanding economies may be expected. The market—when approached by American exporters, fully aware of local conditions, customs, and accompanied by sound and aggressive sales techniques—will assure profitable and expanding export opportunities in East Africa.

Kenya's agricultural economy looks to mechanized equipment to increase production.

PROBLEMS OF TRADING WITH EAST AFRICA

By Dale M. Povenmire
American Vice Consul, Zanzibar

Dale M. Povenmire graduated from Baldwin-Wallace College and received his masters degree from the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy. He also studied at Mexico City College and the University of Hawaii. Mr. Povenmire joined the Foreign Service in 1957 following 4 years of overseas duty as a U.S. Naval Officer. He has had previous assignments in Mexico and Chile.



AMERICAN TRADERS have a long and notable history in East Africa. As early as 1674 vessels from Boston and New York traded with pirates on Madagascar, bringing ammunition in exchange for goods to smuggle into the American colonies. Trade was opened with Zanzibar, then the trading center for the entire East African region, in 1826. By the 1850's, contemporary English observers reported a near American monopoly for the coffee and gums of Aden, the dates and hides of Muscat, and for the ivory of Mozambique. Then, as today, trade was facilitated by the fact that American goods held an enviable reputation for quality. The American Civil War, the increasing prices of American products, the opening of the Suez Canal, and the political domination of the region by the European powers, were responsible for the reduction of American trade to its secondary position after 1860.

While the four territories which comprised British East Africa remain essentially tied to the United Kingdom by their sterling currency, the high British percentage of their foreign trade (34 percent in 1961), and by bonds of sentiment and habit, imports from the United States have increased substantially since the last of the exchange controls on sterling imposed during World War II were lifted late in 1959. The success that American products have had in recovering an increasing share of the East African market may be seen by a comparison of the percentage of imports from the United States into the four territories in 1958 (the last full year of strict controls) and in 1961. The U.S. share of total imports increased in Kenya from 3.4 percent to 5.7 percent, in Tanganyika from 2.7 percent to 5.5 percent, in Uganda from 1.7 percent to 1.9 percent, and in Zanzibar from 0.7 percent to 2.6 percent.

What factors, within the limitations of price and quality competition, might limit the continued expansion of American exports?

The single overriding factor governing trade prospects in East Africa is the present state of political uncertainty. The future of the East African Common Services Organization and of the East African Common Market will probably not be determined until some time after the remaining East African territories have achieved independence. This market containing nearly 25 million potential customers could be fragmented into three separate markets, each too small to justify major investment. Political uncertainty has slowed normal trade expansion and has changed the nature of trade, i.e., imports of capital goods and equipment are down while those of consumer goods increase.

An important factor for American exporters is the changing nature of the present dual economy, now typified by a small "cash" market composed

of Europeans, Asians, and a few Africans who effectively control commerce, industry, and commercial agricultural production in contrast to the bulk of the African population which exists at a subsistence level. As a result of political developments many Africans hope to improve their status and enter the "cash economy." "Africanization" is an accepted fact of life in business and government. Some expatriate trading firms, sensitive to political change, are encouraging Africans to enter retail business.

In general it may be said that goods from the United States compete on an equal footing with those from the Commonwealth and all other countries outside the East African Common Market. There is a common single schedule tariff for the three East African Common Market territories. Zanzibar, although outside the Common Market, also has a single schedule tariff.

Although monetary controls no longer curtail American imports, and goods from the dollar area may now be imported under an Open General License, the long period during which these controls were in effect encouraged and strengthened a pattern of trade with nondollar area countries. Consequently, one of the major problems facing American businessmen is the necessity of overcoming consumer "brand loyalty." Agencies, distributors, and dealers must be established in spite of competition from established products, and prospective exporters must be willing to make a determined sales effort.

Several minor legislative impediments exist which apply to all imports, including those from the United States. There is a requirement in some cases that liquid measurement be indicated in imperial gallons.

In Zanzibar, all electrical equipment must include a ground wire, which means rewiring most American appliances.

The traditional dependence of large European trading firms upon suppliers in their own countries, now rapidly breaking down, is not considered an impediment to the continued expansion of U.S. exports. To the contrary, many of these firms are now among the most effective representatives of American manufacturers.

Naturally not all classes of American products are competitive in the East African market, e.g., even our low-priced clothing cannot compete with imports from Japan, India, and Hong Kong. However, more expensive U.S. dress and sports clothes, particularly advertised brand names, sell well. In this connection it should be noted that, for the most part, it is the larger American firms that have successfully established their products. The comparatively limited size of the East African market means that smaller firms find the sales effort required to introduce their products into the present buyer's market not justified by the small volume of potential sales.

It is extremely difficult to predict all of the potential difficulties that may hamper U.S. exports to East Africa. The embryonic development of consumer cooperatives encouraged by the Tanganyikan Government and the Kenya Federation of Labor may be an indication of a future trend toward state enterprise and a replacement of the Asian *dukha wallah* (shop keeper) in the retail trade. India's large imports of Uganda's cotton and of Zanzibar's cloves have left these territories open to pressure for increased imports from India. In contrast both Kenya and Tanganyika have a variety of export products and the area as a whole is not so susceptible to the market fluctuations that plague underdeveloped countries dependent upon a one-crop economy.

The fulfillment of East Africa's potential as a market for U.S. products is dependent upon the continuing growth of the territories' economies. This, in turn, is dependent upon political stability and a favorable climate for economic expansion. Given these conditions and America's proven ability to produce quality goods at competitive prices, there is no apparent reason why U.S. exports to East Africa should not continue to increase. The rate and extent of that increase is in no small way dependent upon the efforts of American exporters.

Entrance to the Port of Tripoli, Kingdom of Libya, which handled 696,431 metric tons of cargo in 1961.

MALAGASY REPUBLIC

By Gerald A. Friedman
Second Secretary, American Embassy, Tananarive

Gerald A. Friedman received his formal training at Harvard University and at the School of International Affairs at Columbia University. Before entering the U.S. Department of State in 1955, he performed research work abroad for a public relations firm and later held the position of assistant magazine editor. Prior to his assignment to Tananarive in early 1961, Mr. Friedman was U.S. Consul in Frankfurt, Federal Republic of Germany.

UNITED STATES exports to the Malagasy Republic, already very small, have been declining in the last several years. In 1961, Malagasy imported from the United States only $2 million worth of goods (c.i.f. value). Total Malagasy imports in that year amounted to over $100 million, of which over 70 percent came from France. In contrast, 15 percent of Malagasy's 1961 exports were sold to the United States, and sales to the United States amounted to more than five times the value of purchases from the United States.

By far the most important reason for the small share of the Malagasy market held by the United States is the severely discriminatory import-control system [1] which stems from (1) Malagasy's adherence to the franc-zone monetary system and its close cooperation with France in economic, commercial, and monetary matters and (2) Malagasy's association with the European Economic Community (EEC).[2] Malagasy's import controls favor primarily France and other members of the French franc zone and, secondarily, member countries of the EEC other than France.

The chief vehicle for these discriminatory import controls is the intricate system of import quotas which is structured as follows:

1. Imports from France and the franc zone enter quota-free.
2. Special quotas exist for the other five members of the EEC as a group.
3. Bilateral quotas exist for individual Eastern European countries.
4. Global quotas exist for total imports from all other countries including the United States. (Note: The Eastern European and EEC countries can also draw on the global quotas when they have exhausted their own special quotas for the particular category of goods in question.)
5. Bilateral "quotas" exist, in a sense, for each of 14 free-world countries which have priority on certain amounts of specific items in the global quotas.

The quotas cited in categories 3 and 5 stem from the assumption by Malagasy of part of France's bilateral trade commitments to the countries concerned.

The global quotas for 1962 have been set at about $18 million—almost the identical sum allotted the EEC group for the same period. (Total 1962 imports are expected to rise to $115–$120 million.) The slice of the import market offered to the world at large, including the United States, is actually cut well below the $18 million figure by the reservation of $6.5 million of it for petroleum products which come from the Middle East and a virtual allocation of $3 million to specific countries

[1] The United States Government is fully aware of the impediments to the American businessman created by some of the regulations obtaining in a number of African countries which were formerly French overseas territories. As in the past, this Government will continue to press by all appropriate means for the elimination of such barriers.

[2] See Chapter VI.

Courtesy United Nations

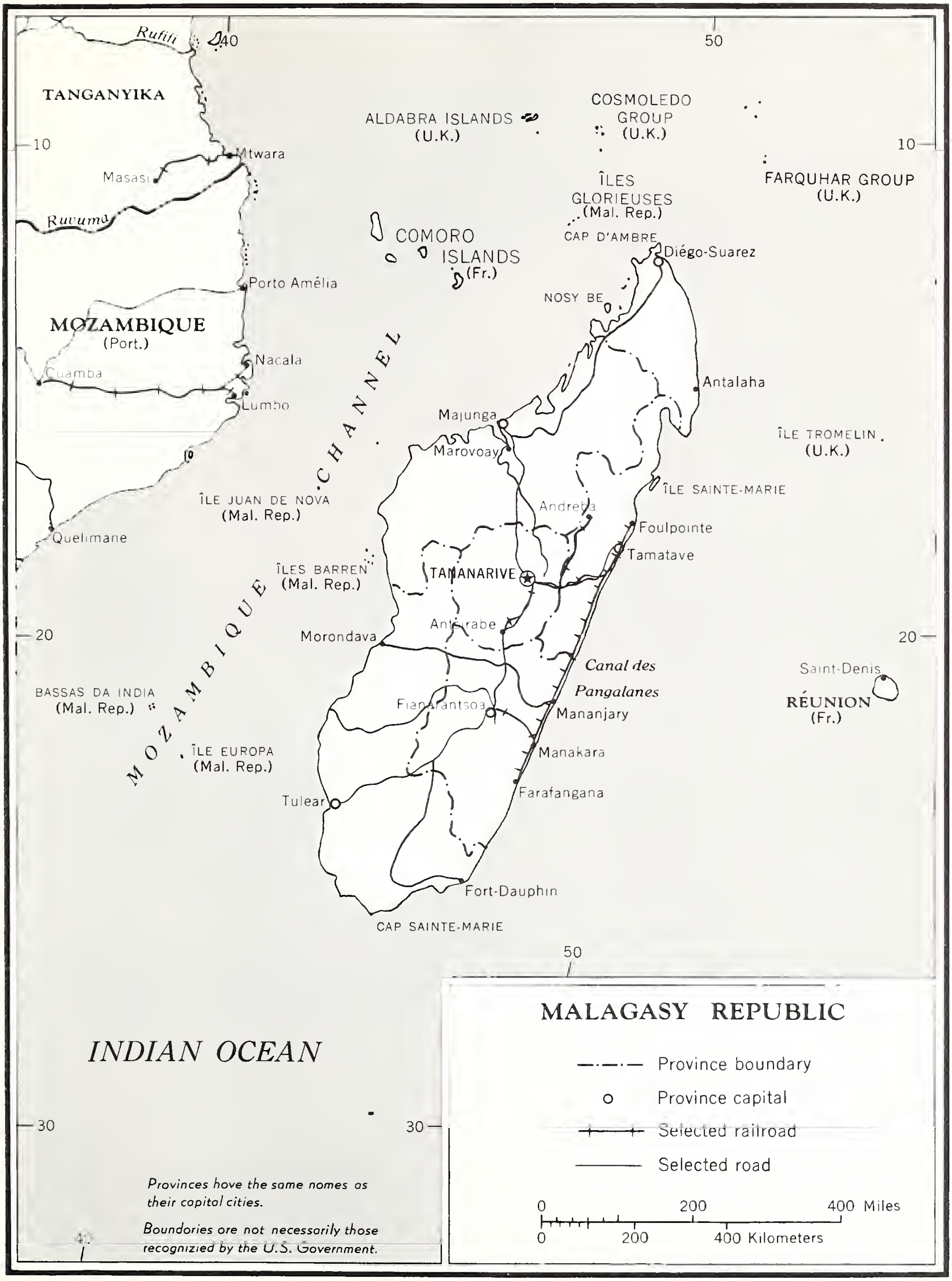
Construction of roads provides access to markets for agricultural output. Kenya, East Africa.

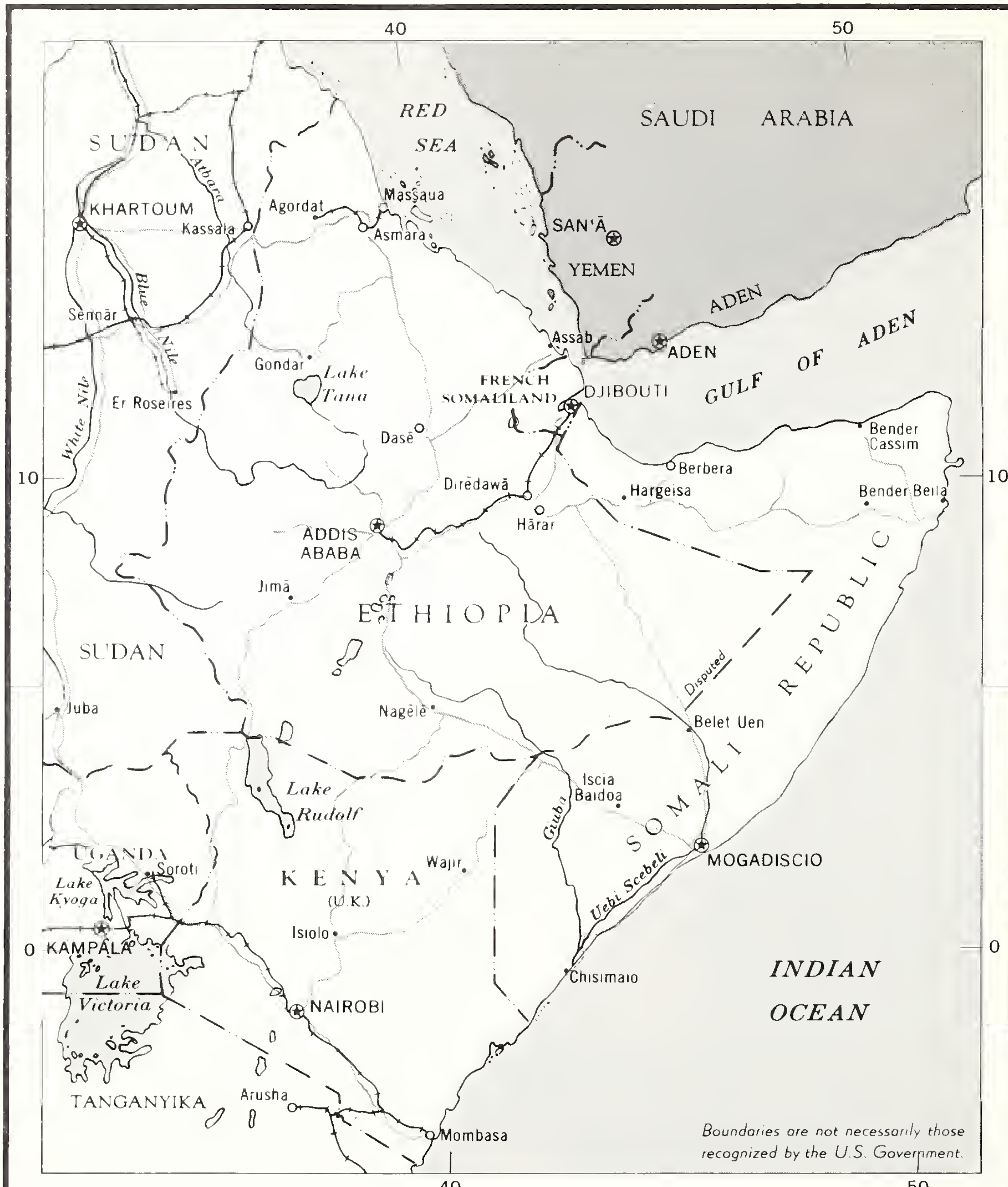
under the category 5 free-world bilaterals. Thus only $8.5 million was made available in 1962 for the United States, the United Kingdom, Japan, and most other potential suppliers.

Another discriminatory vehicle is the customs tariff which was reimposed by the Malagasy Republic in January 1961 after having been suspended since 1943. This tariff adds to the effects of the discriminatory quota system since imports from the franc zone and the EEC are exempted from the customs duties. However, the effects of the tariff are minor compared with the quota system, since the tariffs are assessed on only a limited number of products and then usually at a rate of only 5 or 10 percent ad valorem. (There are also much higher import taxes for revenue purposes, assessed on virtually all products and without regard to country of origin.)

The trade advantages in Malagasy that accrue primarily to France and secondarily to the EEC reflect basic facts of Malagasy's economic life. The Malagasy Republic sells much of its production in a protected French market at subsidized prices. It hopes to enjoy similar advantages in the other EEC countries. France is by far the chief source of aid of all kinds. The EEC is the only other really important source of developmental aid funds. France guarantees the Malagasy currency. French expenditures in Malagasy in various forms maintain equilibrium in the country's balance of payments and, in the ultimate analysis, permit Malagasy the luxury of a chronic and substantial trade deficit.

The prospects for the foreseeable future are that the Malagasy Republic will continue its special monetary and commercial relations with France and its association with the EEC. Within total foreign-exchange availabilities, the relative advantages enjoyed by the EEC may even grow. However, within the basic limitations imposed by the system described above, American firms, aided by the U.S. Government, can try to gain a larger share of the available global quotas for American products. Aside from the prospects of increasing sales in the short run, American firms can work to gain a foothold in the Malagasy market looking toward the day when that market itself will have grown larger and when the import-control system may have evolved along somewhat more favorable lines.


TANGANYIKA
Rufiji
40
50
10
ALDABRA ISLANDS
(U.K.)
COSMOLEDO
GROUP
(U.K.)
FARQUHAR GROUP
(U.K.)
Mtwara
Masasi
Ruvuma
ÎLES
GLORIEUSES
(Mal. Rep.)
CAP D'AMBRE
COMORO
ISLANDS
(Fr.)
Diégo-Suarez
Porto Amélia
NOSY BE
MOZAMBIQUE
(Port.)
Nacala
Cuamba
Lumbo
Antalaha
Majunga
Marovoay
ÎLE TROMELIN
(U.K.)
ÎLE SAINTE-MARIE
Andreba
ÎLE JUAN DE NOVA
(Mal. Rep.)
Foulpointe
Quelimane
Tamatave
ÎLES BARREN
(Mal. Rep.)
TANANARIVE
MOZAMBIQUE CHANNEL
Antsirabe
Morondava
20
Canal des
Pangalanes
Saint-Denis
BASSAS DA INDIA
(Mal. Rep.)
Fianarantsoa
RÉUNION
(Fr.)
Mananjary
ÎLE EUROPA
(Mal. Rep.)
Manakara
Farafangana
Tulear
Fort-Dauphin
CAP SAINTE-MARIE
INDIAN OCEAN
30
Provinces have the same names as their capital cities.
Boundaries are not necessarily those recognized by the U.S. Government.
MALAGASY REPUBLIC
Province boundary
Province capital
Selected railroad
Selected road
0
200
400 Miles
0
200
400 Kilometers



THE HORN OF AFRICA

International boundary

Selected railroad

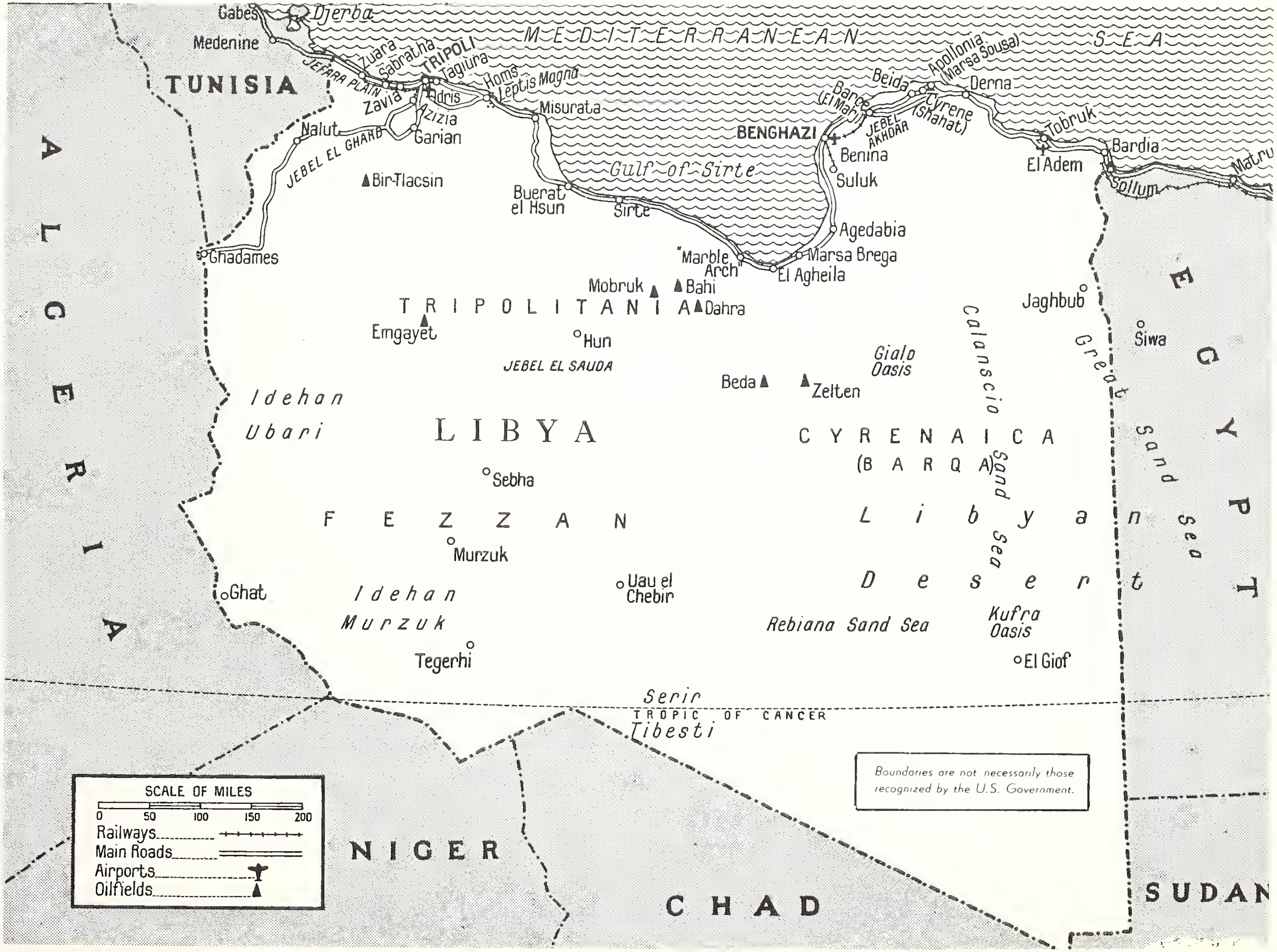
National or colonial capital

Selected road

0 200 400
Miles

Part 4

EXPORT OUTLOOK: NORTH AFRICA AND THE HORN


MEDITERRANEAN SEA
TUNISIA
ALGERIA
EGYPT
NIGER
CHAD
SUDAN
LIBYA
TRIPOLITANIA
CYRENAICA
(BARQA)
FEZZAN
Libyan Desert
Gabes
Djerba
Medenine
Zuara
Sabratha
TRIPOLI
Tagiura
Homs
Leptis Magna
JEFARA PLAIN
Zavia
Idris
Azizia
Garian
Nalut
JEBEL EL GHARB
Bir-Tlacsin
Misurata
Ghadames
Buerat el Hsun
Sirte
Gulf of Sirte
BENGHAZI
Benina
Suluk
Barce (El Marj)
Beida
Apollonia (Marsa Sousa)
Cyrene (Shahat)
JEBEL AKHDAR
Derna
Tobruk
El Adem
Bardia
Sollum
Matruh
Agedabia
Marsa Brega
El Agheila
"Marble Arch"
Mobruk
Bahi
Dahra
Emgayet
Hun
JEBEL EL SAUDA
Beda
Zelten
Gialo Oasis
Calanscio Sand Sea
Jaghbub
Siwa
Great Sand Sea
Idehan Ubari
Sebha
Murzuk
Ghat
Idehan Murzuk
Tegerhi
Uau el Chebir
Rebiana Sand Sea
Kufra Oasis
El Giof
Serir Tibesti
TROPIC OF CANCER
Boundaries are not necessarily those recognized by the U.S. Government.
SCALE OF MILES
0
50
100
150
200
Railways
Main Roads
Airports
Oilfields

THE UNITED KINGDOM OF LIBYA

By Stephen Duncan-Peters
Africa Division
Office of International Regional Economics

Stephen Duncan-Peters received a B.S. from Columbia University. He is a Foreign Service Officer with the U.S. Department of State, serving a tour with the Department of Commerce, where he is Chief of the North African and Horn Section of the Office of International Regional Economics. He served in Tripoli for 4 years prior to his Washington assignment.

THE LIBYAN MARKET is almost unique in Africa in that it presents no major marketing handicaps, such as exchange difficulties or inhibiting licensing procedures. Its merchants are free to trade with practically any country in the world and U.S. exporters energetic enough to investigate its opportunities generally find a very favorable trading environment awaiting them.

Libyan external trade statistics reveal that purchases from the United States rose from $686,000 in 1955, to well over $35 million by 1960. A market offering American exporters an opportunity to increase sales by over 5,000 percent within a 6-year period warrants the closest study.

Between 1955 and 1960, the Libyan economy was dominated by the search for oil. The country's import trade was molded to accommodate the needs of the petroleum exploration companies. During that period, when the primary demands of the Libyan market were for drilling rigs, geophysical equipment, explosives, commercial vehicles, diesel engines and related machinery, total imports rose from $40.3 million to $169.1 million.

By 1961, the search for petroleum had proven spectacularly successful. The construction of pipelines linking the oilfields of Syrtica with newly constructed ports ushered in a new phase which already is reshaping the pattern of imports and opening up new outlets for U.S. manufactured goods.

DEVELOPMENT INCREASES IMPORTS

Very substantial oil revenues are now accruing and Libya may soon be receiving over $100 million annually from this source. The bulk of this revenue, at least 56 percent of which is destined for the Development Council, will apparently be allocated to public works programs, including roads, a national airline, public housing, agricultural projects, sewage systems, public utility facilities, and water desalinization installations. It is expected that Libyan governmental agencies will be making large-scale purchases of transportation equipment, roadbuilding or construction machinery or supplies, prefabricated buildings, agricultural tractors and other farm machinery or tools, and a wide variety of other machinery and equipment.

Libyan governmental purchases or invitations for bids usually are announced in the local press, but the time interval allowed is generally too short to permit participation by foreign firms awaiting notification through routine channels. Potential suppliers seeking to enter this market for the first time should investigate the feasibility of securing local representation in Libya.

GROWING DEMAND FOR CONSUMER GOODS

Libya's population, reflecting the rapidly rising per capita income and increasing urbanization, has created new demands for consumer goods. These are now being sold in larger quantities than any previously envisioned by even the most optimistic forecasts. In 1957, for example, Libya imported foodstuffs worth $15.4 million, textiles valued at $5.1 million, and wearing apparel worth $3.9 million. By 1961, imports in these commodities were as follows: Foodstuffs $19.8 million (up 30 percent); textiles $6.6 million (up 30 percent); and wearing apparel, $7.6 million (up 95 percent). Although the United States has increased its trade in these categories, accounting in 1961 for 5.4 percent of the foodstuffs, 1 percent of the textiles and 2.8 percent of the wearing apparel imports, it is evident that there still is great scope for further increases of U.S. sales in these commodities.

Fortunately, penetration of the Libyan consumer goods market is not hindered by any restrictive licensing quotas or other discriminatory legislative measures. The main difficulties awaiting U.S. entrants are high transportation costs and competition from long established and usually well-represented Italian and British firms. The disparity between U.S. and foreign shipping rates handicaps American exporters in Greece, Cyprus, Lebanon, and elsewhere in the Mediterranean, as it does in Libya, however, and once this factor is taken into consideration the Libyan market becomes an arena where any commercial gladiator is free to win the prize of predominance. Firms in the Federal Republic of Germany, Netherlands, Denmark, India, and Hong Kong have proven within the past few years that any well-qualified exporters can enter the Libyan consumer goods market and succeed if their prices and products are competitive. Libyan Chamber of Commerce officials estimated that within 3 years, 1958–60, the number of foreign firms offering imported products on the local market multiplied five-fold.

EXPANDING MARKET FOR OILFIELD SUPPLIES

The consumer goods market is by no means the only sector wide open to enterprising exporters. The manifold needs of the petroleum exploration industry still must be satisfied. The search for oil continues unabated, as proven by the presence of some 45 portable drilling rigs. In the short run, demand for oil country tubular goods (OCTG), line pipe (20 to 36 inches in diameter), pipe line equipment, explosives, drilling tools, electronic equipment, and other scientific goods required by the petroleum companies should remain high.

According to the latest available Libyan trade data, American exporters were supplying well over half of the oil well drilling machinery imports, 30.6 percent of the machinery, 19.1 percent of the motor vehicles, 17.4 percent of the explosives, and 6.8 percent of the iron pipe. In actual dollar values, U.S. sales in the above commodity categories accounted for $19.3 million out of a total of $63.6 million imported by Libya in 1961. The potentials and problems of this trade were analyzed in detail in the October 1, 1962, issue of *International Commerce.*

KEYS TO SUCCESS

There is no mystery to success in the Libyan market. It is no coincidence that the most successful penetration was achieved by those firms which had the foresight to secure efficient representation and the courage to back their confidence in their own product by insuring its availability on the market. Stocks were on hand in anticipation of demand.

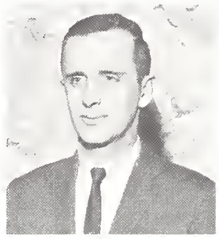
The success achieved by individual American and other foreign firms in Libya is often attributed to the fact that they kept in close touch with their local agent and supported him actively with frequent visits by company representatives and technicians.

The mere appointment of an agent, like a casual planting of a seed, will not ensure eventual growth, however. The process must be followed up by fertilization with ideas and periodic nourishment with advertising material to help promote its development. No worthwhile harvest can be achieved without careful cultivation in a relatively favorable climate. The Libyan import market provides a particularly favorable trading environment. The opportunity is there—the rest is up to American manufacturers and exporters.

THE REPUBLIC OF THE SUDAN

By Richard C. Graham
Africa Division
Office of International Regional Economics

Richard C. Graham has been an International Economist with the U.S. Department of Commerce since 1959. He is a graduate of Western Maryland College and received a graduate degree from the American Institute for Foreign Trade, Phoenix, Ariz. Mr. Graham traveled extensively in Sudan to gather material for the Department of Commerce publication, "Sudan, A Market for U.S. Products."



THE POTENTIAL for expanding U.S. exports to Sudan should be viewed with optimism. There are no significant obstacles to increasing the U.S. share of the Sudanese market other than normal international competition.

Prior to 1959, discriminatory licensing and exchange controls effectively prohibited any significant sales of American goods. Following the liberalization of the pound sterling in that year, Sudan, which maintains the major part of its foreign currency reserves in sterling, put into effect convertibility and revised important licensing regulations to permit procurement from worldwide sources. At present almost all important categories of products are under Open General License.

SIZE OF MARKET

Sudan is Africa's largest country, almost 1 million square miles in area. It is almost one-third the size of the United States, with less than one-fifteenth the population of the United States. There is abundant land for cultivation, needing only irrigation to achieve rapid growth of agricultural production. A program of dam construction is now in progress which will provide sufficient water for irrigating all the land currently within the Sudan's capacity to manage. In fact, with only 12 million people, the country is considered to be underpopulated and labor is scarce.

Foreign trade exceeded $412 million in 1961. Total imports were $234 million, up $51 million over the 1960 total of $183 million. Principal sources of supply were the United Kingdom (27 percent); European Common Market (20 percent); India (10 percent); Egypt (7 percent).

Total exports in 1961 amounted to $175 million, a slight drop from the 1960 total of $182 million. The principal markets were the European Common Market countries (29 percent); United Kingdom (19 percent); India (10 percent).

Historically, U.S. trade with Sudan has been negligible. U.S. interests were confined to small amounts of long staple cotton and to gum arabic, while Sudan took only those products unique or most readily available from the United States. This pattern is changing. Following the signing of the U.S./Sudanese Agreement for Technical Assistance in 1958, and liberalization of the pound sterling in 1959, American-made products began to appear in increasing volume. Bureau of Census data for 1961 and 1962 show U.S. exports of $11.6 million and $12.8 million respectively. U.S. imports from Sudan for the same two periods were $5.09 million and $6.9 million. Percentagewise, U.S. manufactures, including AID-financed goods, have risen from approximately 2 to about 6 percent of Sudan's imports. Machinery and vehicles accounted for the bulk of our trade, amounting to $8.8 million in 1961 and $5.5 million in 1962.

SUDAN
International boundary
Province boundary
National capital
Province capital
Railroad
Road or track
0 50 100 150 Miles
0 50 100 150 Kilometers
UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC
(EGYPT)
LIBYA
CHAD
CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC
REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO
UGANDA
KENYA
ETHIOPIA
SAUDI ARABIA
RED SEA
LAKE TANA
Administrative Boundary
Political Boundary
NORTHERN
KASSALA
DARFUR
KORDOFAN
BLUE NILE
UPPER NILE
BAHR EL GHAZAL
EQUATORIA
Wadi Halfa
Dunqunāb
Abū Ḥamad
Port Sudan
Sawākin
Sinkāt
Trinkitat
Ṭawkar
Kuraymah
Barbar
Aṭbarah
AD DĀMIR
NILE
Shandī
Wādī Howar
KHARTOUM
Omdurman
Khartoum North
Kassala
Biscia
Asmara
Rufā'ah
Wad Madanī
Al Qaḍārif
Ad Duwaym
Sannār
Blue Nile
Al Junaynah
Al Fāshir
Al Ḥillah
Al Ubayyid
Kūstī
Ar Rahad
Umm Rawābah
An Nuhūd
Abū Zabad
Nyala
Ar Rank
Ar Ruṣayriṣ
Babanūsah
White Nile
Malakāl
ADDIS ABABA
Uwayl
Wāw
Tonj
Bo River
Rumbek
Tali Post
Jūbā
Kapoeta
Yambio
Nimule
24
30
36
18
12
6

POTENTIAL FOR GROWTH

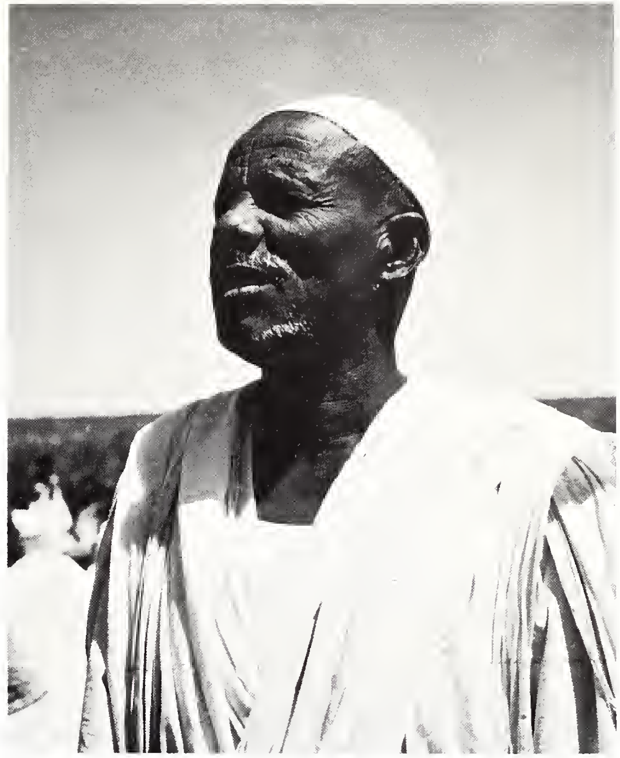
The Republic of the Sudan has been independent for 7 years and is considered to be a politically and economically stable country. Steady economic development has been evident throughout its period of independence. In 1962, the Sudanese Government announced the introduction of a Ten-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development, which may prove to be the most significant undertaking of this country in its history. The plan, embracing some 260 projects covering every sector of Sudanese society, has been projected at a magnitude of 512 million Sudanese pounds ($1,470 million). Signficant amounts of foreign loans already have been obligated and new financing is being negotiated with international lending agencies and various foreign governments to carry out the goals of the plan.

OBSTACLES TO EXPANDING U.S. EXPORTS

The single most important obstacle to expanding U.S. exports to Sudan is lack of knowledge of the products, coupled with little if any sales promotional effort. Acknowledgedly, this is a marginal market for U.S. manufacturers. Yet results could be obtained on an individual company basis by proper promotion in the market. Practically no literature outside of that developed by the American Embassy is available in Sudan on U.S. goods. Procurement officers and engineers are unfamiliar with U.S. standards. Brand name U.S. consumer goods are almost unknown in the country. Only recently have U.S. company representatives begun to include Sudan in their travel itineraries. Agency support is too often perfunctory with little serious attention to the needs of the agent or understanding of his problems.

As in most developing countries, credit terms are almost a *sine qua non* for conducting business. For Sudan this is particularly true because of its chronic transportation difficulties. Most imported goods must be freighted down country from Port Sudan over a single-track railroad system. Imports must compete for space with damage-prone export crops, and delays in shipments may exceed 6 months.

Constantly confronted by the delays in receipt of orders, the Sudanese merchant must seek a source of supply that will not tie up his operating capital, thereby stifling his ability to meet overhead expenses. Many merchants simply cannot operate on a letter-of-credit basis, as much of the available commercial credit volume can become tied up by this slow credit turnover.



Courtesy United Nations

Closeup of cotton farmer in Sudan's Gezira area. The Gezira Scheme is a successful cooperative effort covering over 1 million acres between the Blue and White Nile Rivers.

U.S. exporters contemplating entering the market will be confronted by the credit situation. Sudanese banks have advised that the following arrangement might be used on a limited basis after carefully checking the commercial reputation of the customer: Payment due 60–90 days after delivery at Port Sudan and upon acceptance of documents. After sufficient trial, these terms might be reviewed for possible further liberalization.

If U.S. firms continue to insist upon letter-of-credit terms, the importer who buys on this basis will be obliged to wait 6 or 7 months before collecting from his customer for the goods. Since Sudanese banks are permitted to advance credits secured by imports for periods only up to 4 months, the desirability of cash against documents

or documents against acceptance may prove as important to the merchant as the price.

The Sudanese business community enjoys a very favorable credit reputation and foreign firms operating in the country report very few losses from bad debts. The American Embassy in Khartoum reports that, except where the cost of freight is 40 percent or more of the value of the merchandise, letters of credit are no longer required by other exporting countries. A British bank with branches throughout Sudan stated in its December 1962 report that "cash is no more readily available than before. Long-term credit continues to be freely demanded and, as freely, given."

In summary, the problems that U.S. exporters face in selling to the Sudan are not at all discouraging. In the main they are confined to unfamiliarity and the credit-situation problems which are not unique to this one country. First, however, exporters must want to sell to Sudan. They must take the initiative in investigating the numerous trade opportunities reported in *International Commerce*, the Department of Commerce weekly, and, by all means, respond to commercial inquiries from Sudanese firms. Most U.S. businessmen who visit Sudan are pleasantly surprised by the friendly reception. They are impressed by the degree of business acumen, frank responses, and the earnest desire of Sudanese businessmen to broaden their U.S. contacts.

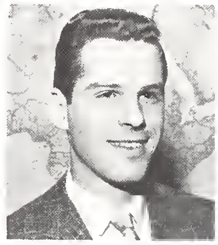
The business community is fairly homogeneous and compact. The visiting U.S. representative can thus come to grips with the prevailing commercial situation in a relatively short period of time. He can see practically all the people who would have an interest in his proposal in one brief visit. With excellent travel connections through Khartoum, which is a crossroad of African air routes, U.S. companies should not fail to investigate at firsthand this developing country.

Khartoum, capital of the Republic of Sudan.

KINGDOM OF MOROCCO

By James F. Seeley
Africa Division
Office of International Regional Economics

James F. Seeley is a graduate of Stanford University, where he majored in Economics. After military service and employment abroad with a major automotive firm, Mr. Seeley is serving as the Moroccan Desk Officer in the Bureau of International Commerce.



MOROCCO, a traditional market for American products, is presently embarked upon an ambitious Five-Year Development Plan which offers expanded opportunities for U.S. exporters. The main emphasis of the plan is on industrial development. Consequently, priority is now being given to the purchase and importation of capital goods and equipment or attending raw material needs to the partial exclusion of nonessential and luxury items.

State participation in the plan is expected to account for 39 percent of the total investment. An important part of the State's participation will be dependent upon foreign loans and grants. The United States, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, and Poland are among those countries which have already made substantial financial commitments to Morocco. International organizations including the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), the International Finance Corporation (IFC), and the United Nations have also allocated funds to Morocco. Some of the funds are specifically earmarked for development projects.

Private investment is scheduled to play the major role in the execution of the plan. To achieve this goal, the Moroccan Government has taken steps to encourage foreign investment capital, which is needed along with domestic capital. In 1960, the Government promulgated a liberal Investment Code, and in 1961 it signed an Investment Guaranty Agreement with the United States. The Moroccan authorities are willing also to participate financially in private ventures in order to encourage new private investment.

The Moroccan Government's efforts to encourage private investment from abroad are bearing some fruit as increasing numbers of U.S. and other foreign firms are reported to be seriously considering specific investment opportunities in Morocco. These new ventures undoubtedly will generate demand for U.S. exports as in the case of the 250-room hotel to be constructed in Rabat and leased to Hilton International. The required hotel equipment and machinery will presumably be purchased in the United States to meet Hilton's own specifications. The possible construction of a steel mill also would offer an opportunity for U.S. exporters as will other projects still in the formative stages. General Tire Company and Proctor and Gamble are among the U.S. companies which have factories in Morocco.

Dollar exchange for the purchase of essential raw materials and capital goods and equipment is made readily available in accordance with the plan, while the related licensing formalities are eased to expedite prompt approval. Nevertheless, the lack of familiarity with U.S. goods, on the part of Moroccan importers and procurement offcials, acts as the principal deterrent to increased U.S. sales in these categories.

SIZE OF THE MOROCCAN MARKET

The Moroccan economy is predominantly agriculturally oriented with over 70 percent of its 11 million people dependent upon agriculture for a living. The country has rich mineral deposits, however, and its infrastructure is sufficiently developed to provide support for an expanded industrial sector. Already the 30 percent of the population that comprise this sector account for more than 60 percent of the gross national product. One of the aims of the plan is to create additional jobs in this sector and consequently raise the per capita income which is at present approximately $150.

Total imports in 1962 amounted to $430 million, a decrease of 4.7 percent from imports in 1961 but still higher than the 1960 figure. In 1961 imports of producer goods accounted for 36 percent of total imports. Total Moroccan exports amounted to $350 million in 1962, an increase of 1.8 percent over 1961.

The United States is Morocco's second source of supply, a position which it has held for some time. According to Moroccan statistics,[1] imports from the United States in 1962 amounted to $58 million (1961, $47 million; 1960, $37 million). Although Morocco's overall imports declined in value between 1961 and 1962, imports from the United States increased by 24 percent during this period. The significance of this increase is offset, however, by the fact that very substantial portions of the U.S. sales in 1961 and 1962 consisted of Public Law 480 grain shipments, sent in response to an urgent need created by the drought of 1961. The recent floods in the Rharb region may result in a continued need for abnormally large Public Law 480 shipments in 1963.

[1] Converted at the rate of 5.06 dirhams=US$1. See table 1, Chapter II, for U.S. Bureau of Census figures.

The old and the new.

Courtesy World Bank

Moroccan exports to the United States amounted to $9.7 million in 1962. The principal commodity was manganese. This amount is a $1 million decrease over the 1961 total.

OBSTACLES TO THE EXPANSION OF U.S. EXPORTS

The fact that U.S. goods are largely unknown to Moroccan businessmen and importers is primarily a result of Morocco's continued close commercial ties with France. Over 80 percent of Morocco's trade is done with France. Morocco is a member of the franc area, and the imports from these territories and the related payments are entirely free, except where a quota system has been established to protect Moroccan production or to decrease imports for balance-of-payments reasons.

The commercial trading and distribution systems in Morocco are largely controlled by French merchants and bankers. Large French chains have stores throughout Morocco, and they supply French goods directly.

Government purchases are normally made through expatriate firms, since many of the Government functionaries are French and accustomed to the commodities of these firms. The purchase of pharmaceuticals is made through expatriate firms because most of the doctors are French. It is, therefore, difficult to introduce new sources of supply, despite their competitive nature.

Import duties are nondiscriminatory and apply equally to all countries although they are often used to reduce imports of a luxury and nonessential nature or to protect locally produced commodities.

The licensing control system, however, differentiates between franc and nonfranc area countries. An import license is required for all U.S. goods, and the time and expense involved in obtaining the licenses acts as a major deterrent to Moroccan importers who might otherwise wish to purchase U.S. commodities.

In other cases, import licenses are denied U.S. products altogether because similar items are readily available from countries with which Morocco has a favorable balance of trade. Morocco has a series of bilateral trade agreements which are periodically renewed and often revised.

AIDS TO EXPANDING U.S. EXPORTS

Aid funds made available to Morocco over the past years have gone a long way toward introducing U.S. exports in the Moroccan market. In fiscal year 1963, the toal AID[2] commitment was $30 million, of which $15 million was tied directly to U.S. procurement. The FY 1964 commitment, while not yet announced, is likely to continue to provide an expanded market for U.S. exports in Morocco.

Despite the impact of AID however, most Moroccan importers are still unfamiliar with American products and U.S. exporters must make greater efforts in merchandising their commodities. This effort in some cases must include the supplying of technical assistance until the equipment or machinery can be effectively used by local technicians. In other instances it will demand the adapting of the commodity to Moroccan specifications, as in the case of electrical apparatus which must be 50 cycles. It will include in others the special training and servicing of local agents in a manner beyond that which the size of the market might normally warrant.

United States companies must also be willing to supply the necessary promotional literature in French or Arabic because their agents do not generally have the staff or the budget to print the material locally.

American firms which submit bids should attempt to have them translated into French before their submission. It is very seldom that the evaluating engineer will understand the bid if submitted in English, and therefore it may be disregarded altogether.

There is evidence to show that U.S. exporters who are willing to make the extra effort can make sales in Morocco. Direct shipping is available to Morocco, and once the import license is granted, the availability of foreign exchange is assured and payment effected without undue delay.

The 5-year plan and the activities of AID offer excellent opportunities of U.S. firms to enter the Moroccan market for the first time. Past experience indicates that once the American capital goods and equipment become familiar, their high quality generally earns them a permanent foothold in the local market. Moroccan importers are quite capable and in most cases eager to do business with U.S. firms.

[2] See Chapter III.

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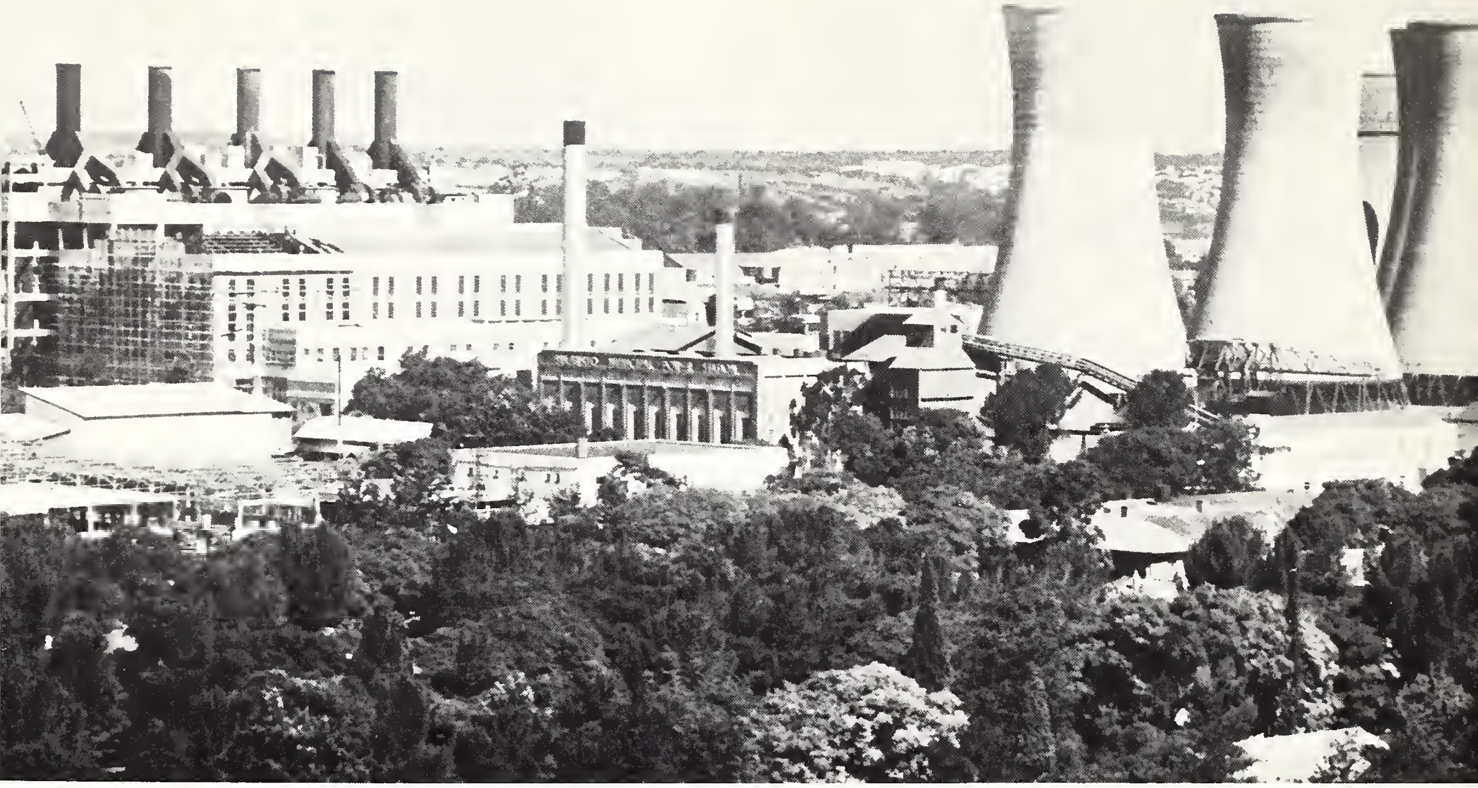

Courtesy World Bank

Both water and coal are extensively employed in the generation of electric power in Africa. Photograph above shows thermal powerplant, Bulawayo, Southern Rhodesia; pictured below is a hydroelectric plant and irrigation system in Morocco.

Courtesy Embassy of Morocco

Part 5

EXPORT OUTLOOK: SOUTHERN AFRICA

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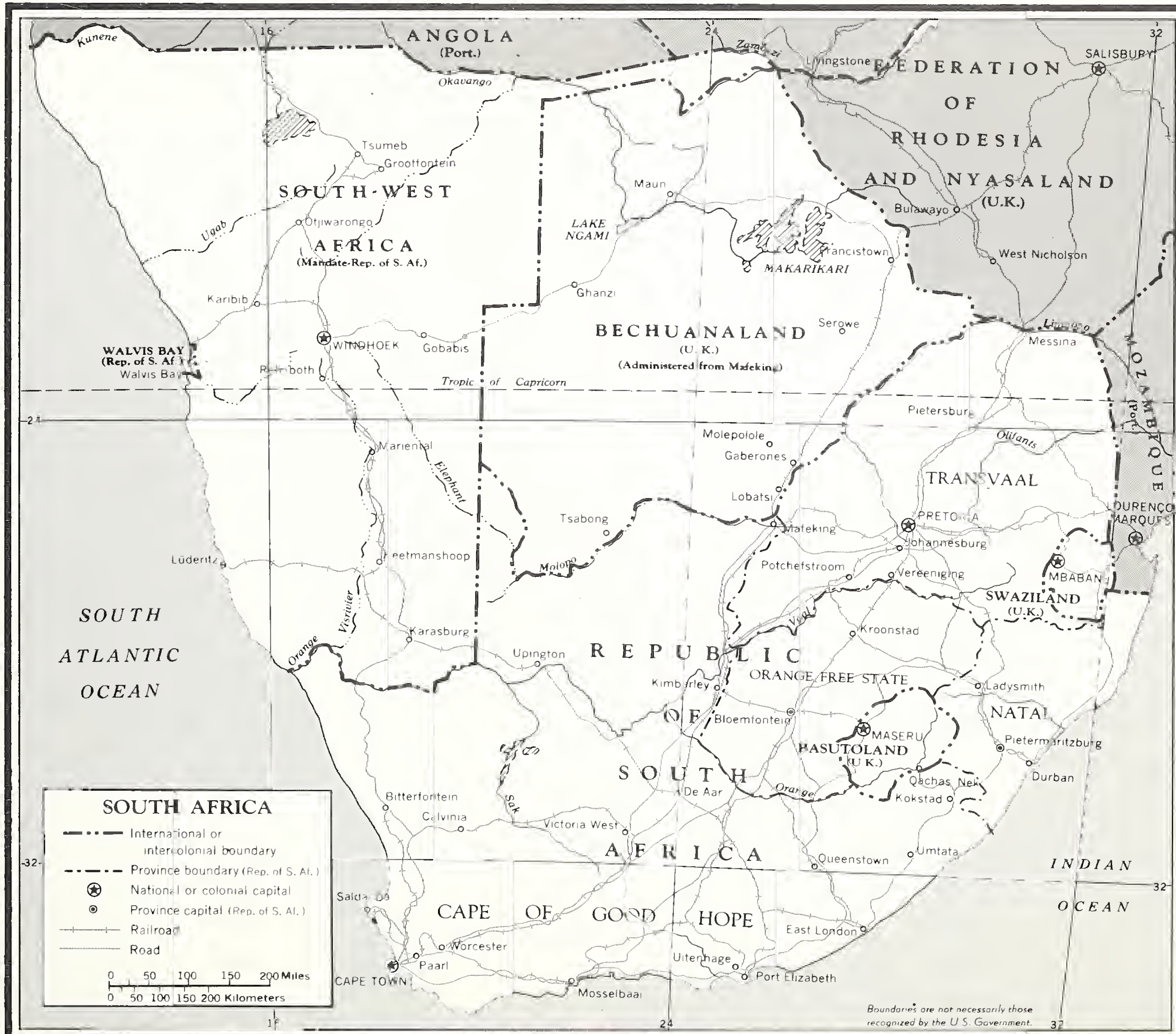
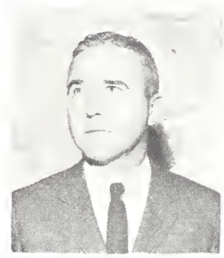

SOUTH AFRICA
International or intercolonial boundary
Province boundary (Rep. of S. Af.)
National or colonial capital
Province capital (Rep. of S. Af.)
Railroad
Road
0 50 100 150 200 Miles
0 50 100 150 200 Kilometers
Boundaries are not necessarily those recognized by the U.S. Government.
ANGOLA (Port.)
FEDERATION OF RHODESIA AND NYASALAND (U.K.)
MOZAMBIQUE (Port.)
SOUTH-WEST AFRICA (Mandate-Rep. of S. Af.)
BECHUANALAND (U.K.) (Administered from Mafeking)
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA
TRANSVAAL
ORANGE FREE STATE
NATAL
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE
SWAZILAND (U.K.)
BASUTOLAND (U.K.)
WALVIS BAY (Rep. of S. Af.)
SOUTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
Tropic of Capricorn
LAKE NGAMI
MAKARIKARI
Kunene
Okavango
Ugab
Zambezi
Limpopo
Olifants
Elephant
Molopo
Vaal
Orange
Sak
Visrivier
SALISBURY
Livingstone
Bulawayo
West Nicholson
Francistown
Serowe
Maun
Ghanzi
Tsumeb
Grootfontein
Otjiwarongo
Karibib
WINDHOEK
Gobabis
Walvis Bay
Mariental
Keetmanshoop
Lüderitz
Karasburg
Messina
Pietersburg
Molepolole
Gaberones
Lobatsi
Tsabong
Mafeking
PRETORIA
Johannesburg
Potchefstroom
Vereeniging
LOURENÇO MARQUES
MBABANE
Kroonstad
Upington
Kimberley
Bloemfontein
MASERU
Ladysmith
Pietermaritzburg
Durban
Qachas Nek
Kokstad
De Aar
Bitterfontein
Calvinia
Victoria West
Queenstown
Umtata
Saldanha
Worcester
Paarl
CAPE TOWN
Mosselbaai
Uitenhage
Port Elizabeth
East London
16
24
32

THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

By William J. Bushwaller
Africa Division
Office of International Regional Economics

William J. Bushwaller graduated from Georgetown University after Army service in World War II. Following work in the University's School of Foreign Service, he served the Department of State in Kenya, Tanganyika, Brazil, Australia, and Mexico. He recently transferred from the Foreign Service to the Department of Commerce, where he is Chief, Southern and East African Section, Africa Division.



THE REPUBLIC of South Africa, with a population of almost 16 million and an area about one-sixth the size of the continental United States, has the most advanced economy of any African country. It is the world's leading producer of gold and an important world source of diamonds, platinum, manganese, chrome, and wool, among other mineral and agricultural items. Extensive coal and iron deposits have provided the basis for a well developed thermopower grid and a basic steel industry, producing some 2⅓ million short tons of ingot annually.

Secondary industry now accounts for 24 percent of the national product and the growth of manufacturing activities has been especially rapid in the post-war period. Import controls, initially imposed for balance-of-payments reasons in 1948 and continuously maintained since then, have tended to spur the rate of industrial growth. Many foreign firms, including some of the largest U.S. companies, have established branch plants there or have concluded licensing arrangements [1] for local manufacture. The per capita gross national product in South Africa is estimated at $480,[2] a figure well above that of any other African country.

Although South Africa experienced an economic boom generally in the postwar period, the level of economic activity has fluctuated sharply in some years. A contributing factor has been the extreme volatility of capital inflows from abroad which have been sensitive to political and social developments. Because South Africa normally depends on gold sales and investment from abroad of foreign funds to offset a heavy import imbalance, the Government takes direct action to curtail the level of total imports allowed into the country whenever capital inflow diminishes. This is done by means of tightening import control regulations. Conversely, when South Africa's capital inflow posture (and hence its balance of payments) improves, the authorities tend to liberalize import regulations.

Inasmuch as South African import controls are more stringent on consumer goods, and as this class of goods figures importantly in U.S. exports, changes in the South African import control regulations have a direct impact on U.S. trade. The import regulations, however, do not discriminate as between foreign suppliers, and South African importers are free to utilize their import licenses in any country of their choice. Thus, while South African import controls are significant, they are not an overriding factor in determining the level of U.S. exports to that country. Indeed, it can be said that while the South African control system determines the total level of authorized imports, the share accounted for by individual supplying countries generally is governed by such competi-

[1] See Chapter VII.

[2] South Africa's gross national product at market prices for 1961 is placed at 5,487 million rands ($7,681.8 million). One rand equals US$1.40.

Courtesy World Bank

Rising African incomes generate demand for diversified consumer goods. A shoe factory in operation in Southern Rhodesia.

tive market factors as price, quality, credit, and shipment terms. In these circumstances, the U.S. exporter can expand his shipments to South Africa by intensified sales efforts and more aggressive action to compete with other suppliers in that market.

South Africa traditionally has been our most important African market, accounting for some 35 percent of U.S. exports to the continent, by value, during 1961. However, the United States ranks well behind the United Kingdom as a principal supplier to South Africa. The United States has not been maintaining its share of the South African market in recent years because of stiffer foreign competition. In 1956, the United States accounted for 20 percent of the South African market, whereas the Federal Republic of Germany had 6.4 percent; and the United Kindgom 31.6 percent. In 1961, the United Kingdom accounted for 29 percent of South Africa's imports as against 17.6 percent for the United States, 10.8 percent for the Federal Republic of Germany, 2.7 percent for Italy, and 3.6 percent for Japan.

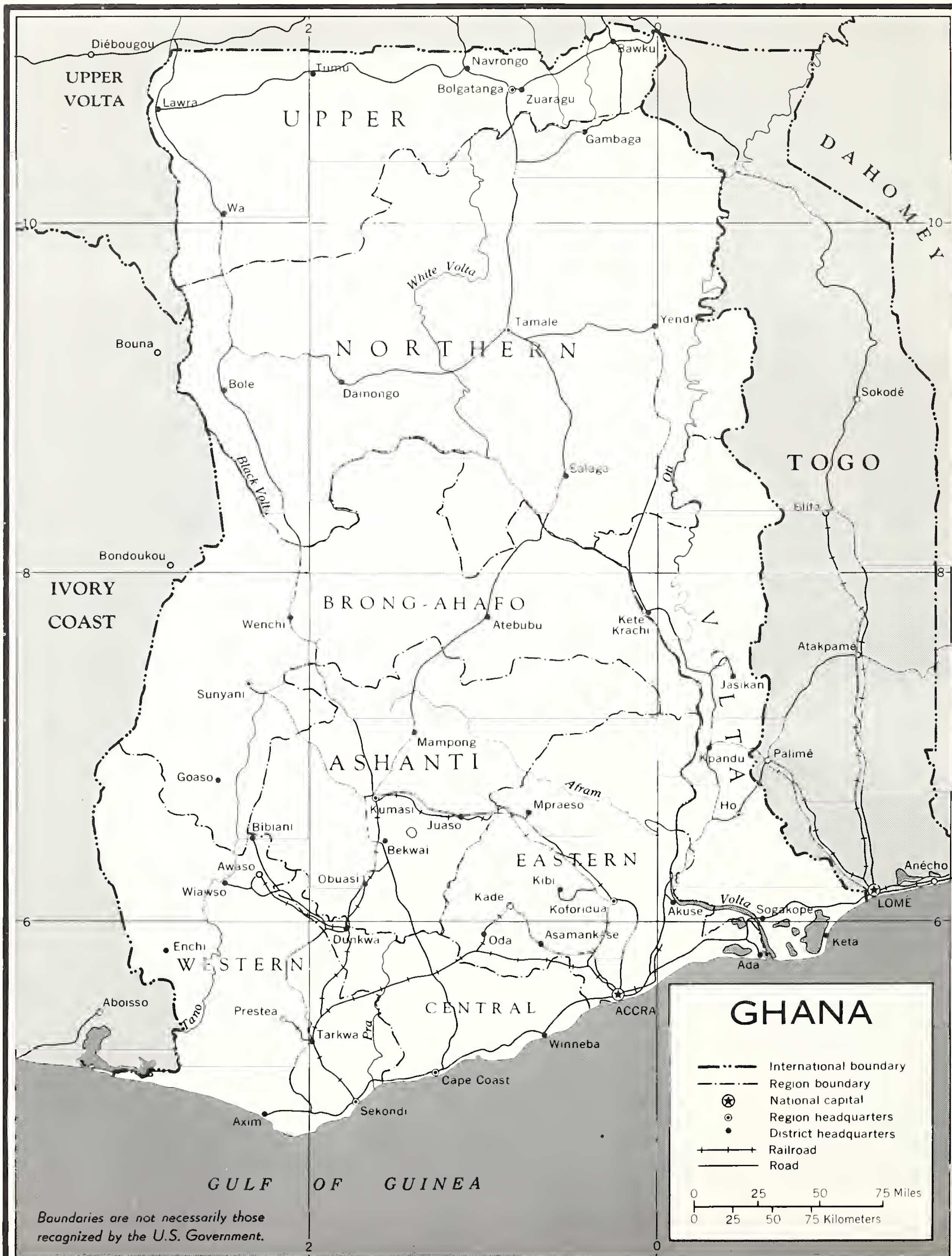
OUTLOOK

South Africa experienced great stress in 1960–61. Racial tension and political developments culminating in South Africa's withdrawal from the British Commonwealth on May 31, 1961, acted to lessen confidence of overseas investors, and to engender a feeling of general nervousness throughout the business community. As a result, there was a marked economic slowdown. The Government was forced to adopt stricter exchange and import control measures to conserve its declining gold and foreign exchange holdings. Partly as a result of these actions and as a consequence of increased gold output and exports generally, the country's gold and exchange holdings improved rapidly. From 197.4 million rands as of September 1961, gold and exchange holdings rose to 276.6 million rands at the end of December 1961, and by the close of 1962 had reached a level of 445.6 million rands ($6,238.4 million).

Numerous foreign firms, including some American companies, in 1962 announced plans for the expansion of existing plants or the establishment of new industries in the Republic. These included the manufacture or assembly of synthetic rubber, farm equipment, spark plugs and shock absorbers, truck and passenger cars, superphosphate, titanium dioxide, pig iron, carpets, textiles, and aluminum products.

More favorable conditions of trade and increased economic activity undoubtedly prompted the Republic to announce a cautious relaxation of its import controls for 1963. Preliminary South African figures show that total imports during 1962 amounted to $1,448 million, an increase of about $31 million over 1961. With this easing of controls and a probable upturn in the country's economy, imports during 1963 should continue to increase, provided political conditions remain favorable. New or expanding industries will require capital goods, semimanufactured items, and components, and this activity should be reflected in the market for consumer goods. To compete with other foreign suppliers and obtain a greater share of South Africa's import market, U.S. exporters will be required to intensify their sales efforts.

Telecommunication improvements figure importantly in African economic development plans. Testing an urban telephone exchange system installed in Asmara, Ethiopia.


GHANA
UPPER VOLTA
DAHOMEY
TOGO
IVORY COAST
GULF OF GUINEA
UPPER
NORTHERN
BRONG-AHAFO
ASHANTI
EASTERN
VOLTA
WESTERN
CENTRAL
Diébougou
Tumu
Navrongo
Bawku
Bolgatanga
Zuaragu
Lawra
Gambaga
Wa
White Volta
Tamale
Yendi
Bouna
Bole
Damongo
Sokodé
Black Volta
Salaga
Oti
Bilita
Bondoukou
Wenchi
Atebubu
Kete Krachi
Atakpamé
Sunyani
Jasikan
Mampong
Kpandu
Palimé
Goaso
Afram
Kumasi
Mpraeso
Juaso
Ho
Bibiani
Bekwai
Awaso
Obuasi
Kibi
Anécho
Wiawso
Kade
Koforidua
Akuse
Volta
Sogakope
LOMÉ
Enchi
Dunkwa
Oda
Asamankese
Keta
Ada
Aboisso
Tano
Prestea
ACCRA
Tarkwa
Pra
Winneba
Cape Coast
Sekondi
Axim
International boundary
Region boundary
National capital
Region headquarters
District headquarters
Railroad
Road
0 25 50 75 Miles
0 25 50 75 Kilometers
Boundaries are not necessarily those recognized by the U.S. Government.

Soviet Bloc Economic Offensive: Ghana, A Case Study

By Evelyn M. Schwarztrauber
Commercial Officer, American Embassy, Accra

Miss Schwarztrauber is a graduate of Lake Forest College and the University of Illinois. Having gained experience as an economic analyst in the Civil Service, she entered the Foreign Service in 1945. Her assignments abroad, before Ghana, have included Australia, Mexico, Ceylon, and Japan.

GHANA'S RECEPTIVITY to Soviet bloc overtures[1] seems to have been enhanced by pressure on Ghana's balance-of-payments position. Ghana recorded a deficit of G£53 million[2] in 1961, The balance of payments is expected to show a deficit for 1962 and the first half of 1963. Foreign exchange reserves dropped from G£148 million in 1960 to the present level of around G£80 million. This deterioration appears to have been one of the motivating factors behind Ghana's willingness to accept bloc aid.

Stringent import controls and increased taxes imposed in 1961 have relieved the pressure on the balance of payments and foreign currency reserves, to some extent. To achieve economic independence and reduce reliance on imports, Ghana needs to diversify agriculture and to establish an industrial base. But these goals involve heavy capital expenditures for plant and equipment, for mechanization of agriculture, and the introduction of scientific farming methods.

Ghana, therefore, is accepting aid from all quarters. The Soviet bloc's offers of capital loans on easy terms and low-interest rates are attractive to Ghana. Medium- and long-term loans from any source permit orderly planning and seem to be preferred because managerial control by Ghanaians is assured. Offers to set up complete industrial plants by bloc countries have a special allure. Ghana is cultivating alternate bloc markets for her cocoa because of oversupply in free world markets, low prices, and fears of the adverse effects of an enlarged European Common Market.

SCOPE OF BLOC PENETRATION AND EFFECTIVENESS

Initially the bloc sent exploratory trade missions to Ghana which paved the way for the formation of permanent trade and diplomatic relations. The Soviets in 1960 opened a permanent trade exhibit in Accra. Delegations from other bloc countries arrived, and a further impetus to closer economic relations came with President Nkrumah's tour of the East in the summer of 1961, when he appeared to be impressed by his host countries' industrial achievements.

A Ghanaian trade mission then was sent to negotiate bilateral agreements. In turn the Eastern delegates came to Ghana. Trade exhibits were mounted in Accra by communist China, Yugoslavia, and the U.S.S.R., and another is planned soon by Hungary. Communications have been strengthened by a civil aviation agreement concluded between Ghana and the U.S.S.R. Aeroflot began operations into Ghana in September 1962 and Ghana Airways inaugurated services to Moscow in February 1963.

[1] In West Africa, the Republic of Ghana, along with the Republics of Guinea and Mali, have been special targets of Soviet bloc economic aid and penetration. Although Soviet economic efforts must be viewed as part of a master strategy of attaining a political power posture in Africa and hence cannot be dismissed lightly, it is important to note that the Soviet economic offensive has not been singularly successful.

[2] One Ghanaian pound=about US$2.80.

Courtesy Ghana Information Services

The Kumasi Central Hospital, Ghana, one of the best-equipped in West Africa, built at a cost of over $10 million.

A series of bilateral trade and payments agreements were signed with Soviet bloc countries comprising loans and credits totaling G£70 million ($196 million) by February 1962, of which G£34 million ($95.2 million) originated with the Soviet Union.

Bloc assistance generally has taken the form of massive loans for grandiose industrial and agricultural projects which aim to diversify exports, expand production of import substitute crops, and to effect a rapid rate of industrialization. Significantly, many of the industrial projects are planned for state-owned enterprises, and agricultural aid in the form of technical assistance and machinery is to be used on state and cooperative farms. Some of the proposals seem feasible, but others, such as the tractor assembly plant and rubber plantations, seem to be chiefly a means of expanding bloc sales of heavy capital equipment.

Of the large number of proposals, as yet only one has been implemented—the Soviet geological survey, with a substantial number of technicians already in the country.

There have been signs of disillusionment with bloc methods among upper level Government officials. When the actual terms of the agreement were examined, it was found that Soviet bloc aid was costing far more than comparable Western projects. A review of the entire program was undertaken at the end of 1961—an encouraging sign of a more practical and less doctrinaire approach to Ghana's economic development.

During Mr. Mikoyan's visit to Ghana in January 1962, a revised agreement was signed. Many costs were reduced—salaries, air transportation of personnel, and other allowances—to bring the projects more in line with Western offers. These savings, however, might tend to release more funds for Soviet capital equipment and surveys.

Bloc equipment in general is said to be unsatisfactory. Six out of eight Ilynshin 18's, for example, were withdrawn from West African routes and replaced with Viscount aircraft because the Soviet craft were too expensive to run. Deliveries of equipment are slow and often the material provided is not suitable. The large number of technicians require excessive expenditure of local currency by the Ghana Government.

IMPLICATIONS OF BLOC DRIVE ON U.S.-GHANAIAN ECONOMIC RELATIONS

Ghana's total trade with the bloc showed a substantial increase for the first 6 months of 1962 compared with the corresponding period in 1961. Exports to the U.S.S.R. (including 20,000 tons of cocoa) almost quintupled in the period. The bloc is to take over 50,000 tons of cocoa a year by the end of a 5-year period, which has to be balanced by some barter arrangement.

Imports from the U.S.S.R. rose 35 percent, leaving a balance in Ghana's favor of almost G£3 million, and about G£5 million from the bloc as a whole. Ghana could increase imports from the bloc to G£20 million to utilize G£15 million swing credits under the trade and payments agreement plus the trade balance. Ghana is trying to

liquidate these credits by importing more consumer goods from the bloc, using the import licensing procedure and the state trading corporation for this purpose.

Despite the increase of bloc trade activities in Ghana, there has thus far been no adverse implication for U.S.-Ghanaian trade. U.S. trade showed a continuous increase until 1961. Exports to the United States for the first 6 months of 1962 were valued at G£13.9 million, a decline of 30 percent compared with 1961. This decline is due to the sharp drop in the volume of cocoa exports to the United States.

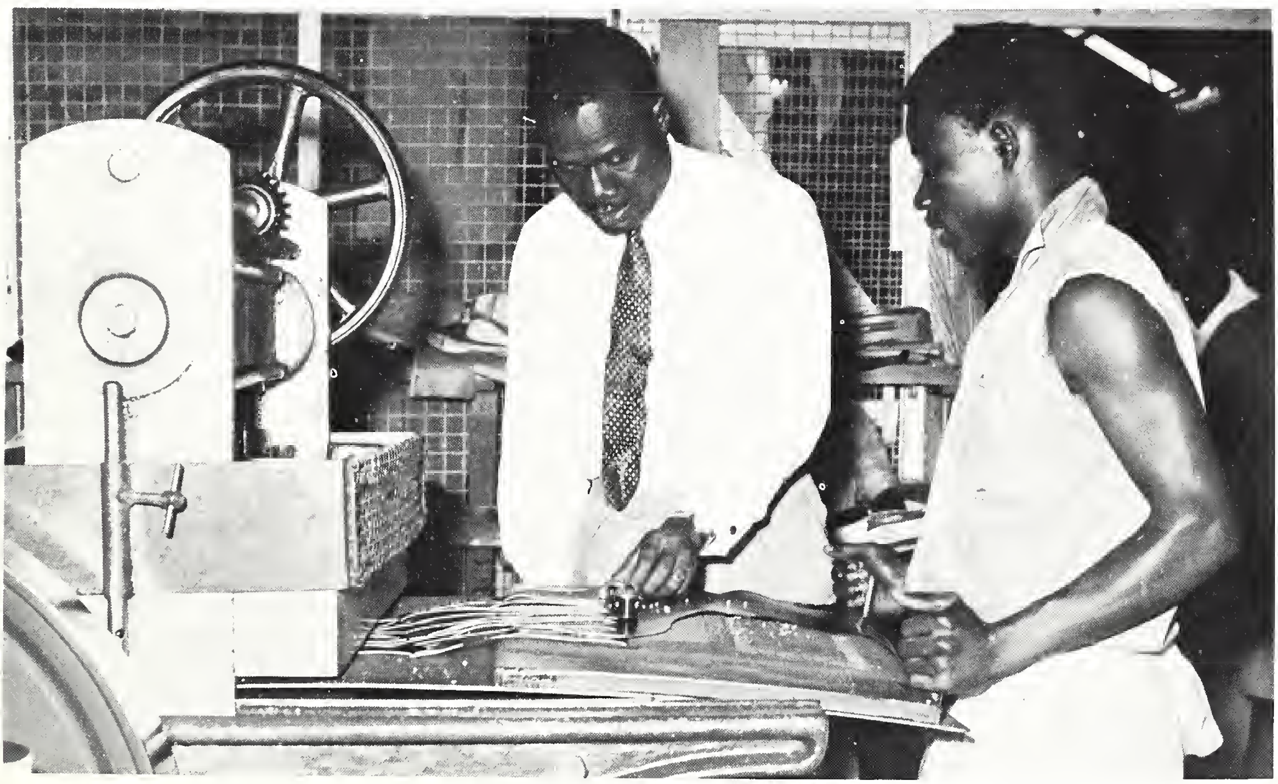
Imports from the United States for the first 6 months of 1962, however, fell by 23 percent to G£5.2 million. This reflected the general cut in imports owing to import controls and the precarious balance-of-payments situation. The existence of bilateral trade agreements put the bloc in an advantageous position vis-a-vis Western countries, with the result that imports from the bloc expanded, but still account for only about 5 percent of Ghana's total import trade.

The economic involvement with the bloc has affected the investment climate, which has steadily deteriorated in the past year and a half. During this period Government policy statements on private foreign investments and Ghanaian private enterprise have seemed at times to conflict.

A gradual shift in attitude has become apparent in recent months, however, probably as a result of studies connected with the formulation of the 7-year plan. It is obviously impossible for the Government to provide all the funds necessary to meet investment targets under the proposed plan, and both domestic and foreign private capital will have to supplement the public sector.

In an address before Parliament on October 2, 1962, President Nkrumah made it clear that the Government has no intention of taking over industries in the private sector, except on request, nor of expropriating property. Adequate compensation would be paid. Private investors will compete on equal terms where state enterprises operate.

An investment act is being formulated, as the President pointed out, to clarify the Government's policy and to define the nature of concessions proposed for private investors. Small Ghanaian businesses will be allowed to expand.



Courtesy Ghana Information Services

An African-owned leather goods factory in Ghana. African small businesses are gradually emerging.

Courtesy Ghana Information Services

Accra, chief city and capital of Ghana.

African Regional Groupings

By John J. Eddy
Africa Division
Office of International Regional Economics

John J. Eddy holds an A.B. from Boston College and an M.A. from the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy. Mr. Eddy served 4 years in the U.S. Air Force, and entered the U.S. Department of Commerce in October 1961.

THE PROLIFERATION of African regional groupings since the close of World War II has introduced an important factor for consideration in current efforts to expand exports to Africa. Although most of the new groupings originally were motivated predominantly by political considerations, many now are increasingly emphasizing economic and commercial cooperation. Common interest in expanded trade, for example, has moved several African countries to join together in customs unions or in limited free trade areas. Import controls between member states of these common markets have in some instances been liberalized, and telecommunications and transportation between nations have been improved.

As most of these regional associations are still in their formative stage, it is too early to assess their future impact on American sales in Africa. On the one hand, the U.S. exporter may discover new advantages in the enlargement of internal markets as the customs barriers between states in particular groupings are gradually dismantled. On the other hand, he may find himself confronted, temporarily at least, with somewhat higher tariff walls in certain countries as these countries adjust their duties upward to meet the level of a common outside tariff.

To assist U.S. foreign traders in weighing present and potential effects of these groupings on U.S. exports, there follow descriptive summaries of the major associations in Africa.

INTERNATIONAL OR PAN-AFRICAN ORGANIZATIONS

United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA)

ECA was established in 1958 as a subordinate organization of the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC). All of the Commission's 37 member states, some of which are European, exercise or have exercised responsibilities in Africa. These are Algeria, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo (Brazzaville), Congo (Leopoldville), Dahomey, Ethiopia, France, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Ivory Coast,

Liberia, Libya, Malagasy Republic, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Niger, Nigeria, Portugal, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Senegal, Somali Republic, South Africa, Spain, Sudan, Tanganyika, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, United Arab Republic, United Kingdom, and Upper Volta. Associate members of the ECA are Basutoland, Bechuanaland, Swaziland, Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Gambia, Kenya, and Zanzibar.

The annual meetings of ECA have provided a forum for the discussion of controversial African social and economic problems, with African unity and economic development constituting the underlying themes. To date, ECA's most impressive substantive work has been that of its secretariat, which has produced basic research studies and organized functional inter-African conferences and study sessions.

The Fifth Plenary Session of ECA was held in February 1963 in Leopoldville, Republic of the Congo.

Commission for Technical Cooperation in Africa (CCTA)

Following the recommendations in 1949 of an intergovernmental conference in Johannesburg on scientific research in Africa, most of the governments then responsible for administration in sub-Saharan Africa established the Commission for Technical Cooperation in Africa south of the Sahara (CCTA). Pursuant to proposals introduced at the CCTA meeting in Abidjan in 1962, "South of the Sahara" has been dropped from the title, and all independent African states except South Africa are eligible for membership.

Present full members are Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo (Brazzaville), Congo (Leopoldville), Dahomey, Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland (although not independent), Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Malagasy Republic, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Tanganyika, Uganda, and Upper Volta.

CCTA's role is to pool experience and know-how among government technicians on mutual scientific and technical problems and to promote intergovernmental action in these fields. The Commission is advised by an independent body of distinguished scientists, the Scientific Council for Africa (CSA).

M. Lazare Mpakaniye, Ambassador of the Republic of Rwanda, discusses foreign trade activities of the U.S. Department of Commerce with George Donat, Deputy Director, Bureau of International Commerce.

Association of African States and the Malagasy Republic with the European Economic Community

The Rome Treaty's "Convention of Association" was renegotiated in 1962 by the six European members of the European Economic Community (EEC) and 18 overseas territories of the Six which had become independent. The new convention, which was initialed on December 20, 1962, and which is awaiting signature and ratification, maintains the general goals of the original agreement of association. Under the present terms, however, aid from the Six to the African states will be increased to $730 million over the next 5 years.

Trade provisions of the new agreement call for duty-free entry into the EEC of a number of tropical products from the associated states—including coffee, cocoa, and tea—effective when the new convention comes into force. Other modifications include new institutions to supervise the application of the Convention.

The major goals of the Association, which were reiterated in December 1962, are: "To promote the economic and social development of the countries and territories (now States) and to establish close economic relations between them and the Community as a whole." These goals are to be accomplished mainly by progressive elimination of tariff and other trade barriers on all trade between the European members and the associated African

states, by gradual elimination of tariffs between the African states themselves, and by expanded development assistance to the African areas through the Six's European Development Fund.

The independent African states which are signatories to the new Convention of Association are: Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo (Brazzaville), Congo (Leopoldville), Dahomey, Gabon, Ivory Coast, the Malagasy Republic, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Somalia, Togo, and Upper Volta.

Organization of Independent African and Malagasy States (IAMSO)

In May 1961, the Brazzaville Twelve [1] joined Liberia, Togo, Somali Republic, Nigeria, Libya, Sierra Leone, Tunisia, and Ethiopia in a major meeting of African states at Monrovia, called by President Tubman of Liberia. Known as the Monrovia Group, all of these countries openly favored the development of relations between the new Africa and the West. Members hoped to promote a better life for their citizens through mutual cooperation and joint ventures in various endeavors.

At their Lagos Conference in January 1962, the Monrovia Powers announced that a charter would be drawn up for their Group, which subsequent to the charter's acceptance would be named the Organization of Independent African and Malagasy States (IAMSO). The charter was initialed [2] by representatives of the Monrovia Powers at a conference in Lagos in December 1962. The agreement has "provisional application" pending ratification, which is expected to take several months.

The charter provides for the following institutions: (1) An Assembly of Heads of States and Governments, which shall be the supreme organ of the Organization; (2) A Council of Ministers, which shall meet at least twice a year to decide upon general policies and actions; and (3) A General Secretariat, to be the central administrative organ of the Organization. Headquarters of the Secretariat have not yet been decided upon.

[1] See section, "Brazzaville Group," following. Members are Senegal, Mauritania, Ivory Coast, Republic of Upper Volta, Dahomey, Niger, Chad, Gabon, Congo (Brazzaville), Central African Republic, Malagasy Republic, and Cameroon.

[2] The charter is expected to be signed in Addis Ababa on May 23, 1963.

Diversified imports being unloaded at Port Sudan harbor.

OTHER REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Brazzaville Group

The "Brazzaville Group" emerged from a conference held in Brazzaville, Republic of Congo, in December 1960, under the leadership of Felix Houphonet-Boigny, President of the Ivory Coast. All participants had formerly been French overseas territories in Africa, except Cameroon, which was a French-administered U.N. trust territory. This grouping was formally organized as the Union of African and Malagasy States (UAM) [3] in September 1961, but its members are still frequently referred to as the "Brazzaville Twelve" or "Brazzaville Group." The Group has striven to maintain friendly relations with France, while working to build a modern Africa. Members are Senegal, Mauritania, Ivory Coast, Republic of Upper Volta, Dahomey, Niger, Chad, Gabon, Congo (Brazzaville), Central African Republic, Malagasy Republic, and Cameroon.

[3] See section, "Union of African and Malagasy States and Related Agencies," (UAM), following.

Union of African and Malagasy States (UAM)

The UAM, founded in 1961, is in a sense a more formalized Brazzaville Group.[4] UAM represents an association of former territories of French West and French Equatorial Africa, plus the Malagasy Republic, but minus Togo, Guinea, and Mali. Members are Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo (Brazzaville), Dahomey, Gabon, Ivory Coast, Malagasy Republic, Mauritania, Niger, Senegal, and Upper Volta. The twelve share a common background of cultural and political association with France and a desire to retain friendly relations with the former metropole, on which they remain heavily dependent for financial, technical, and, in most instances, military assistance.

Although essentially a consultative organization—the heads of state meet twice a year—the UAM also has established a postal and telecommunications union (UAMPT), a joint airline (Air Afrique), a defense committee, and most importantly, an organization for economic cooperation (OAMCE). The OAMCE is working toward common policies for currency, customs, and investment. All UAM states are members of the franc zone and associate members of the European Economic Community. The Union has a small secretariat and is building a headquarters building at Cotonou.

The Entente and Equatorial Groupings

Separate from, but in effect nesting within the UAM, are the four Council of the Entente states (Dahomey, Ivory Coast, Niger, and Upper Volta), and another organization which groups the four Equatorial states (Chad, Central African Republic, Congo (Brazzaville) and Gabon) with Cameroon. The Entente was formed in 1959 to give some institutional structure to various schemes of defense, technical, and economic cooperation. Within the Council there is a limited free trade area and a Solidarity Fund to which all members contribute and which in effect is a channel for subsidies from the Ivory Coast to the poorer members for use in their development budgets. The Entente has a central bank which includes Senegal and Togo.

[4] See section, "Brazzaville Group."

The organization which groups the Equatorial states and Cameroon—although also loosely structured politically—incorporates somewhat more highly developed institutional arrangements than does the Entente: A joint secretariat, a defense council, a common central bank of issue, a customs union,[5] and a joint administration of common services. There is an interstate Solidarity Fund, an agency for transequatorial transportation, another for post and telecommunications, a foundation for higher education, an institution of geological and mining research, and a procedure for harmonizing fiscal legislation and regulations.

The Casablanca Group

The Casablanca Group desires an independence based on new economic and political structures, but avoiding alignment in the Cold War. The Group's avowed doctrine being "positive neutralism," it professes receptivity to all forms of assistance from any source.

The association resulted from a conference held in January 1961 at Casablanca. Members are Morocco, the United Arab Republic, Guinea, Mali, Ghana, and, now that it is independent, Algeria. The Casablanca Group has discussed various forms of functional cooperation and has projected a "Council for Economic Unity," a development bank, a common airline and shipping company, postal, telecommunications, and customs unions, and a payments union. Little progress seems to have been made thus far towards implementing any of these proposed projects.

The Union of African States

The Ghana-Guinea-Mali "Union of African States" envisaged a limited amount of functional cooperation. In mid-1961, the heads of state approved measures to achieve closer radio and road links, the exchange of postal money orders, and coordinated civil aviation policies. The Union has never been actively promoted.

[5] See heading "Equatorial Customs Union (UDE)."

SPECIAL CUSTOMS AND TRADE GROUPINGS

West African Customs Union and the Ghana-Upper Volta Limited Free Trade Regime

The West African Customs Union, really a limited free trade area, was established in 1959. The Union's participants are the franc-zone countries of Dahomey, Ivory Coast, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Senegal, and Upper Volta. Member states have maintained, in general, common customs and fiscal duties on imports. Taxes levied on imports, however, vary considerably from one member state to another. Effectiveness of the Union also has been lessened by unilateral tariff policy changes taken by some members. Upper Volta, for example, undertook the establishment of limited free trade arrangements with Ghana in 1961 (although this has since become inoperative for all practical purposes), and Mali has effected significant increases in duties and taxes applicable to imports.

Within the West African Customs Union, no quantitative restrictions are imposed on the movement of goods, nor are natural products which are exported from one member country to another subject to import duties or taxes. Some duties and taxes, however, are applied to goods manufactured in member states from materials imported from third countries.

The Equatorial Customs Union (UDE)

UDE (*Union Douaniere Equatorial*) was established in 1959 by the Central African Republic, Chad, Congo (Brazzaville), and Gabon. The UDE countries have maintained identical duties on imports from third countries, and taxes applicable to such imports vary little among member states. Movement of goods within the UDE is free, with only minor exceptions.

In 1961 arrangements were made for association of Cameroon with the UDE. On July 1, 1962, the UDE and Cameroon adopted a Common External Tariff which is levied in addition to previously existing import duties and which is applied to all imports except those from France, EEC countries, and member states of the OAMCE. Seeking coordination of economic and defense matters, the UDE and Cameroon have instituted a joint administration over transportation, postal, and telecommunications services, and geological research. A Central Bank for Equatorial Africa and Cameroon (BCEAEC) administers monetary matters.

East African Common Services Organization (EACSO)

EACSO is the successor to the East African High Commission. That body, in addition to affording the governors of Kenya, Tanganyika, and Uganda periodic meetings on common problems, had an impressive record of intergovernmental cooperation. From 1947 to 1961, EACSO supervised and administered a broad range of joint services, including railways and harbors, posts and telecommunications, revenue collections (income taxes as well as customs and excise), civil aviation and meteorology, and certain economic studies (particularly statistical). In the field of research the Commission was responsible for 11 separate organizations, concerned with such activities and subjects as industry, agriculture and forestry, fisheries, locust control, leprosy, malaria and vector-borne diseases, trypanosomiasis, and other medical problems.

The Commission became the East African Common Services Organization when Tanganyika gained independence. EACSO has continued virtually all the functions of the Commission except maintenance of the small East African naval force. Perhaps the new organization's most noteworthy contribution to East African solidarity has been its strong support of East Africa's *de facto* common market, or customs union.

Power feeds growing industrial park in Lagos, capital city of Nigeria.

AID Investment Guaranty Program in Africa

As of January 16, 1963, investment guaranty agreements had been concluded with a total of 14 African countries. On that day Nigeria, the Republic of Congo (Brazzaville), and the Republic of the Congo (Leopoldville) were officially included in the program. Previously under the AID Investment Program other participating countries were: Morocco, Tunisia, Sudan, Liberia, Ghana, Sierra Leone, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Niger, Togo, and Ethiopia.

The institution of the program in these countries will enable the U.S. Government to provide insurance against various non-business risks to American investors for new investment projects approved by the host governments.

The program is designed to encourage investment abroad of private U.S. capital which will contribute to the economic development of less developed countries participating in the plan.

Guaranties against inconvertibility, expropriation, and losses due to war, revolution or insurrection are available under the program, as well as the new extended risk coverage. A guaranty of convertibility insures the American investor that his capital and annual returns on that investment will remain convertible; insurance against expropriation, war, revolution or insurrection will enable an American investor to recover losses due to these causes.

The United States Government under this program offers protection for investments of capital, commodities, services, patents, and processes. An eligible investment may be in the form of stock purchase, loans, or royalties for which a fee of one-half of 1 percent is charged of the amount of each coverage in force in any given contract year.

American investors interested in obtaining investment guaranty coverage for foreign investment should address inquiries to the Investment Guaranties Division, Agency for International Development, Washington 25, D.C.

Private Investment Outlook Contrasts in Selected Countries

Courtesy World Bank

Development of iron ore deposits at Fort Gouraud through foreign private investment will drastically alter the pastoral Mauritanian economy. A Mauritanian learns new skills.

THE AGGREGATE VALUE of U.S. private investment in Africa has increased substantially in recent years; however, compared with U.S. global direct investment, the share in Africa is relatively small. Moreover, U.S. investment in Africa is disproportionately concentrated in a few countries and outside of the Republic of South Africa is heavily concentrated in extractive operations. In terms of area distribution, U.S. direct investment is uneven and tends to be heaviest in certain areas or regions, e.g., South Africa, Rhodesia, Liberia, and Libya.

As the newly developing countries in Africa require substantial amounts of foreign capital investment if they are to achieve economic growth and development, and as these countries themselves present a fertile field for investigation on the part of American investors, the problem arises as to how to promote diversified American private investment in both the traditional as well as the newly developing areas in Africa.

This chapter attempts to review generally the problems and opportunities in the African continent for the American private investor. It contrasts the investment climate in newly developing areas as well as in an area in a more advanced stage of economic growth, e.g., South Africa, where the U.S. private investment has been established over a longer period of time.

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Private Sector Must Help U.S. Aid Emerging Areas

By Jack N. Behrman
Assistant Secretary of Commerce
for Domestic and International Business

THE UNITED STATES as a nation has a strong interest in the economic growth of the less developed nations of the free world. We have a strong commitment to help in accelerating such growth. We are spending several billion dollars a year in Government aid programs in an effort to do so.

So far the vast bulk of our aid efforts has been on a government-to-government basis. This is understandable in short-term emergency programs. A good deal of government-to-government activity will necessarily be involved in any development program.

However, it is becoming increasingly apparent that development efforts will never get very far off the ground unless and until they are restructured so as to involve a much wider spectrum of participation both in the United States and in the underdeveloped countries.

This is simply another way of saying that there must be much wider involvement of the manpower, initiative, know-how, and resources of the private enterprise system which is, after all, the main source of these factors relevant to development in our kind of society.

The United States national interest in encouraging increased private investment in less developed countries stems not only from our concern with the acceleration of economic development in these countries, but also from direct considerations of our own trade and payments position. Private investment lightens the foreign aid load carried by public funds.

Even in the short run, investments in new plants and facilities in less developed areas are to a large extent directly translatable into additional exports of U.S. machinery and equipment.

In the long run, the return from an increasing volume of such U.S. overseas investments can be a key item in our foreign exchange earnings, as well as to continued exports of equipment and components.

Finally, also in the long term, higher incomes in these countries can provide greatly expanded markets for all types of U.S. exports; private investment can play a major role in creating these higher incomes.

Against this background, the Congress, the President, and other Government leaders have repeatedly emphasized the objective of encouraging maximum private enterprise participation in development programs.

Thus, for example, in discussions of new tax legislation it has always been indicated that Executive Branch proposals to alter tax treatment for overseas activities of U.S. firms is not aimed at constructive activities in underdeveloped areas.

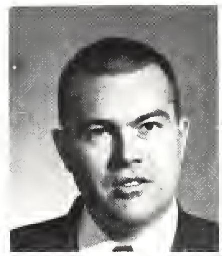
The positive national interest in increasing such investment was recently summarized by Secretary of State Dean Rusk, who said: "We feel very strongly that private investment is an important part of the economic and social development effort . . ."

—Reprinted from *Foreign Commerce Weekly* (now *International Commerce*), May 14, 1962.

WHY INVEST IN AFRICA

By John P. Wentworth
American Consul, Salisbury
Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland

John P. Wentworth is a graduate of Case Institute of Technology and served in the U.S. Navy during World War II. Before entering the Foreign Service he was an electronics engineer and project designer. Following his previous assignments in Colombia and Cyprus, Mr. Wentworth was detailed to Princeton University for advanced economic studies.



WHY INVEST in Africa at all? Although enough of the answer is so obvious that the question is hardly worth asking, the rest of the answer is so significant that it must be stated emphatically.

There is no need here to reaffirm the belief that U.S. national interest dictates leaning heavily on private investment in an endeavor to accelerate Africa's growth—this is the obvious part of the answer. The U.S. firm that can afford to invest in Africa should not overlook the opportunity. It is not an overstatement to say that Africa is the market of the future. Now is the time to establish brand names and trading patterns.

But why invest in Africa? Why not sell from the safety of home? Certainly the export of American-made goods would be a step in the right direction, not only for its present effect on our balance of payments, but for its even more significant effects in the future. In Salisbury, the Consulate General would welcome an invasion of energetic, resourceful, informed American sales representatives to supplement the relatively few usually seen.

Expanded selling efforts do not necessarily overrule consideration of the ultimate benefits which might be derived from actual production in Africa. Such investment operations might make it possible, for instance, to design products especially suited for the local markets. Joint partnership arrangements between U.S. manufacturers or investors and indigenous African firms or individuals are highly desirable.

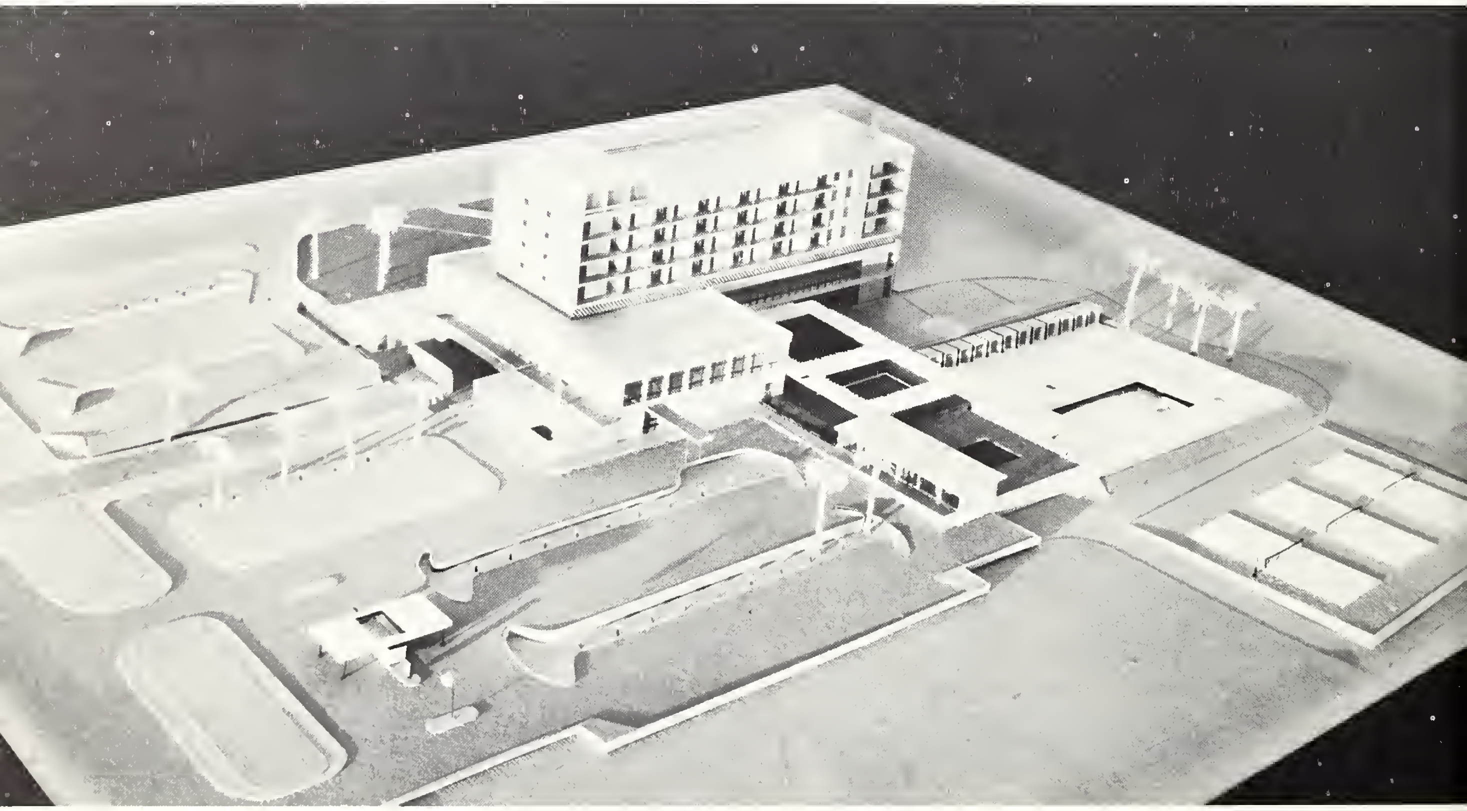
A step intermediate between exporting and local production could involve licensing arrangements, with capital and technical assistance, and quality control inspection, from the American business firm. Careful selection and supervision of the local collaborator is essential, however.

The factors discouraging the American investor are painfully obvious, and perhaps better known, than some of the U.S. Government's services (the Investment Guaranty Program, for example) designed to mitigate their effects.

Certainly, there are real economic impediments—such as the deficiency of infrastructure, the scarcity of trained labor, and limitations on the present size of markets—that demand initiative and ingenuity on the part of an investor, and that militate against his making an early and substantial profit. These factors should not be a serious deterrent to the far-sighted investor who has the resources to outlive an initial period of no return or moderate losses.

More serious is the political uncertainty. There is always the danger that investments appearing perfectly safe today may become untenable because of legislative or institutional changes inimical to the investor. These are real dangers, but they will be run willingly by the businessman who feels that the chances for long-term profit outweigh the threat of loss. Here the advantage lies with the company that has sufficient resources to operate in several countries, offsetting losses in one area against profits reaped in other localities.

Heavy equipment being transported for development of COMILOG manganese mines in Gabon. The United States Steel Co. has important interests in this enterprise.



Hotel construction and management—a promising field for American investors and exporters. Typical of the many hotels planned or newly established in Africa is the Presidential Hotel at Enugu, Eastern Region of Nigeria.

Part 1

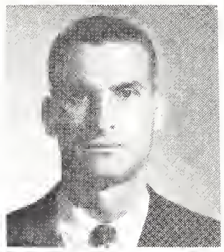
PRIVATE INVESTMENT OUTLOOK: NEWLY DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Courtesy Sierra Leone Information Services

An artist's impression of the New Hall and Municipal Offices which are to be built soon in Freetown, Sierra Leone.

SIERRA LEONE

By Guido C. Fenzi
Commercial Officer, American Embassy, Freetown



Guido Fenzi graduated from the University of California. He has served as a Foreign Affairs Officer in the U.S. Department of State, as Vice Consul in Rotterdam, and as a Foreign Service Officer on detail to the Department of Commerce.

SIERRA LEONE has an estimated population of 2½ million but not more than 15 percent are fully in the monetary economy. Eighty-five percent are subsistence farmers—a few have small money incomes from the sale of export crops. Inland transportation to neighboring countries is so poor as to be almost nonexistent. A local manufacturer, therefore, has a limited local market and little opportunity to expand into neighboring ones.

Notwithstanding the limited size of the market, Sierra Leone does offer definite inducements for the foreign investor. Sir Milton Margai, Prime Minister of Sierra Leone, often has made positive statements in favor of private investment for his country. On March 10, 1961, for example, he said that it was the Government's "wish to encourage foreign capital investment to the maximum extent possible." The Prime Minister went on to say that the Government had no intention of expropriating any foreign-owned firm, but if it did become necessary full fair compensation would be paid. The Government of Sierra Leone has, moreover, taken actions to suit its words. The Development Ordinance of 1960 provides duty-free entry privileges and a 5-year tax holiday for firms receiving a development certificate. Exchange controls exist although they have been greatly liberalized in recent years and repatriation of capital, profits, or interest has not been difficult.

The Government, a stable and conservative one, has made every effort to create a favorable investment climate; thus far few new investments have been attracted. The largest private investments made since the war have been by the British-owned iron and diamond mining companies. Both of these firms, however, were well established in the thirties. Most new investment has been carried on by the Government itself. Even the partially private cigarette, beer, and gin factories, which have just been completed or are in the process of being built, are largely owned by the Government. The total American private investment is in a tuna fishing industry (the tuna is shipped to Puerto Rico for canning), a petroleum storage company, sales and distribution for two petroleum companies, and two companies exploring for minerals. Why then with such a favorable investment climate is there so little private investment?

Investment can be in primary industries—mining, for example, or the manufacturing and service industries. In underdeveloped countries the mining industry produces for export and the manufacturing and service industries for the internal market. Political stability and a good investment climate are equally essential to both types of investment but only the manufacturing and service industries need be concerned with local market potential.

The present situation is favorable for extractive industries and there will be no difficulty attracting private capital if sufficiently rich deposits of minerals are found. For manufacturing and service industries this is not enough; investments in these fields are deterred by the limited market in the country.

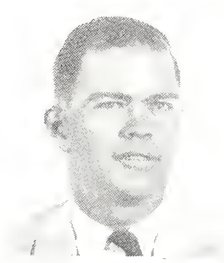
Investors with an eye toward the future of Africa would do well to give close examination to the possibilities for the development of primary industries in Sierra Leone. As the country's economy develops, broader opportunities will arise for the introduction of light manufacturing industries.

World demand for fertilizers spurs development of Africa's phosphate resources. A phosphate plant in Togo, West Africa.

REPUBLIC OF TOGO

By Charles H. Hallock
Vice Consul, American Embassy, Lome

After Army service in World War II, Charles H. Hallock graduated from the University of Virginia. Following military service again during the Korean emergency, he obtained a masters degree from the University of Indiana. Mr. Hallock entered the Foreign Service in 1957 and served at Amsterdam and The Hague previous to his present assignment in Togo.



THE PATTERN of U.S. private investment in Togo has been and will be influenced to a large extent by three factors: Togo's relatively limited resources and small market; the favorable climate for investment; and the extent of foreign competition.

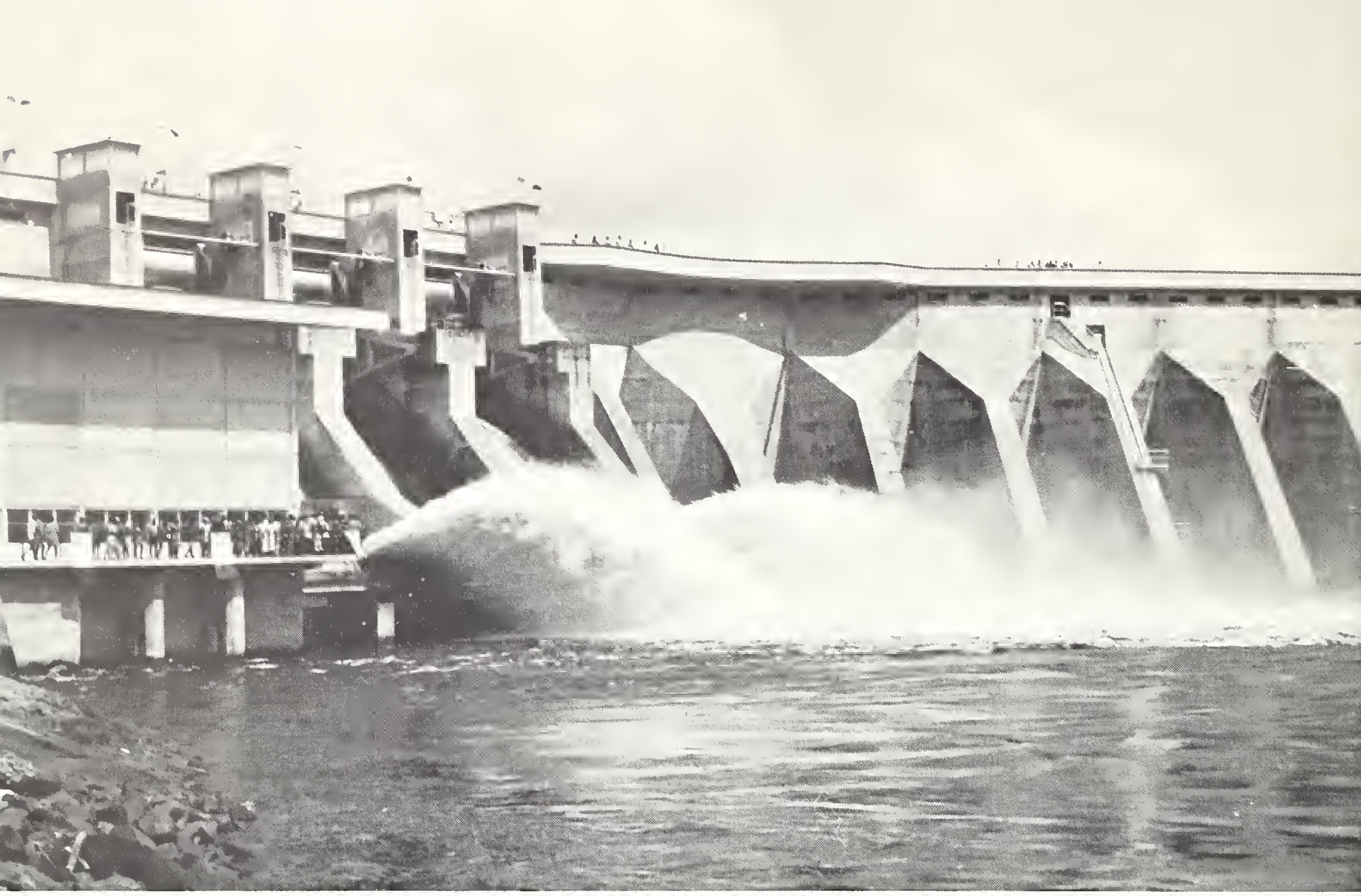
Togo represents a limited market, in terms both of population and purchasing power. Most private investment in Togo, therefore, has been concerned with production and processing of products for export. Small plants have been developed for the processing of agricultural produce, such as palm oil pressing mills, a cassava starch plant, and several cotton gins. Most of these small plants, for historical reasons, are French controlled. The only other field of major investment interest is mineral exploitation. The only mineral now offering commercial possibilities is phosphate; known deposits are being exploited by a French-Togolese company which was formed in 1957. An American firm has recently reached agreement with this company for purchase of a 30-percent interest in the operation.

Although the Togolese internal market is small, possibilities still exist for production and sale of consumer goods on a reduced scale. Most of the retail and wholesale sales of consumer goods are made through large expatriate trading firms such as SCOA (*Societe Commerciale de l'Ouest Africain*), *CFAO* (*Compagnie Francaise de l'Afrique Occidentale*), and UAC (*United Africa Co., Ltd.*). Since independence there has not been much change in this pattern and such efforts as have been made to set up Togolese trading firms have been hampered by competition from both the large expatriate firms and from small Lebanese traders. The pattern is the same in the production of consumer goods, and French or Lebanese interests control most small industries.

The climate for foreign investment is excellent. Togolese laws relating to private investment are very liberal and provide for concessions to potential investors, such as exemption from customs duties on initial imports of plant and equipment and relief from all taxes for several years. The Government of Togo signed an Investment Guaranty Agreement with the United States on March 20, 1962.

Aggressive foreign competition in all fields is the third major factor bearing on possibilities for U.S. private investment in Togo. This includes not only the historical presence of the French, but the more recent efforts of the Germans and Italians. The Germans, for example, are putting up a soft drink plant and brewery in Togo and have plans to build a textile mill, while the Italians are installing a chain of filling stations.

The most important U.S. private investment is the participation in the Togolese phosphate operation already mentioned. There also is the



Courtesy Embassy of Ivory Coast

The Ayame hydroelectric project on the Bia River, with an annual output of 80 million kilowatt-hours, helps meet industrial needs of the Ivory Coast.

Togo-American Oil Co. which has been set up to conduct oil exploration. The same interests which are engaged in petroleum exploration also have provided capital for establishment of a local store selling almost exclusively American consumer goods.

Perhaps the most interesting development, however, is the recent effort by one American investment firm to start a salt industry, to establish a local air service, and to purchase a controlling interest in a tire recapping plant. All three of these projects are in the process of negotiation.

In addition to American private investment actually accomplished, or in advance stage of negotiation, two existing opportunities for American investment look promising. One is the possibility of investing in the newly created, Government-owned, export-import firm, SOTEXIM. This firm was set up by the Government to sell basic consumer goods at a reasonable profit, undercutting what are considered to be excessively high prices of large expatriate trading firms, and hopefully forcing them to reduce their prices. The director of this firm is interested in low-cost American merchandise and would welcome a joint venture with an American import-export firm.

Another good possibility is American participation in the construction of a sugar processing plant. One American firm has indicated interest in making a study of this industry and investing in such a plant if the study proves satisfactory.

Although the present market in Togo is small, it will grow considerably in the years to come as will other African markets. Moreover, there is the possibility that closer economic cooperation between Togo, Dahomey, and Nigeria, now being seriously discussed among these three countries, will result in a customs union opening up the Nigerian and Dahomean markets to Togolese products; this, of course would increase significantly the potential for American investment in Togo.

IVORY COAST

By G. Michael Bache
Commercial Attache, American Embassy, Abidjan

G. Michael Bache graduated from Yale University and Harvard Law School following service in the U.S. Army. He served in the Foreign Service from 1951 until 1958, in Europe and in the Far East. Mr. Bache left the Foreign Service in 1958 to return to private business in investment brokerage, but returned to the Service in 1961.

THE FIRST question which any businessman asks when he is considering investment in an unfamiliar area is: "What is the climate for investment?" One of the most important elements in the investment climate is the political situation.

The Government of the Republic of Ivory Coast can be characterized as moderate, stable, and friendly to the West. President Houphouet-Boigny has been inculcating in his administration and his people a sense of the necessity for sound, careful progress rather than rushing headlong in many directions and making expensive mistakes. The President also has refused all diplomatic contact with the Soviet bloc.

In the economic sphere, the country is relatively rich in resources and has a favorable balance of trade. The Government has encouraged foreign private investment by establishing favorable tax treatment for essential industries and by keeping restrictive regulations to a minimum. The percentage of profits required to be reinvested in the country is a moderate 20 percent.

OBSTACLES TO U.S. PRIVATE INVESTMENT

There are, of course, several obstacles for American businessmen to overcome before investment in Ivory Coast can be successful. The first is, perhaps, the problem of opposition from some established French business firms. One means of approaching this problem is through a joint venture with a French firm, such as some American oil companies and banks are doing.

Another obstacle is the related one [1] of preferential tariffs and other special advantages of the franc zone. A third obstacle is inadequacy of the infrastructure, but here sound planning and substantial foreign aid should make significant progress in the relatively near future. A fourth obstacle is the shortage of skilled manpower, but the solution lies readily at hand—include plans for training in any investment project.

PAST, PRESENT, FUTURE U.S. INVESTMENTS

Two American oil companies have been active in the Ivory Coast for nearly 40 years. In addition to their retail distribution facilities, these companies now are participating in the construction of a refinery which will have a yearly capacity of 600,000 tons when it is completed late in 1964.

Of the four American diamond buying concerns which have been operating in the Ivory Coast for

[1] See Chapter IV, Parts 1 and 3 for discussion of this obstacle.

Open pit extraction of manganese ore at the Mokta deposits near Grand-Lahou, Republic of Ivory Coast.

Courtesy Embassy of Ivory Coast

some time, two have obtained exploration concessions which may eventually lead to mining activities and a third is looking into other investment opportunities.

Two large American banks already have become partners with French and other European banks in establishing new local banking institutions, and at least two other American banks are engaged in negotiations which may lead to similar arrangements.

One American seafood company has established a freezing and storage plant in Abidjan and plans to build a cannery. Other American food manufacturers are seriously studying the possibilities.

There is a modest American participation in a new luxury hotel now under construction.

Opportunities for future investment in the Ivory Coast are almost unlimited. Small industries could profitably be established in such fields as building materials, food processing, housewares, textiles, toiletries, and rubber processing. In mining, besides diamonds and manganese, of which there are large known commercial deposits, potential exists for beryllium, gold, lithium, chromium, and other minerals.

The investor with initiative to investigate these opportunities and with foresight to be on the spot as the Ivory Coast market—indeed the West African market in general—expands, may be richly rewarded.

Part 2

PRIVATE INVESTMENT OUTLOOK: A "DEVELOPED" AREA

Courtesy World Bank

Aerial view of Johannesburg with new railway station under construction reflects the tremendous growth of that city in recent years.

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

By Theodore C. Nelson
Economic Officer, American Embassy, Pretoria

Theodore C. Nelson graduated from Harvard University and obtained his masters degree from the University of Minnesota. He entered the State Department in 1956 after serving for 3 years in the U.S. Army. Mr. Nelson completed 2 years as a research analyst in the Department and was assigned to Sarajevo before his present assignment.

FOR A CASE STUDY of private U.S. investment in an African country, the Republic of South Africa presents an example which is hardly typical for the continent; it is more similar to the situation in well-developed European economies. In terms of the volume of U.S. investment and the generally favorable conditions for investment, the contrast with most other African areas is such as to make it a difference more of kind than degree. An examination of the case of South Africa will serve to indicate those factors which have been responsible for one-third of total U.S. private investment in the continent being made in this one country.

Overseas investment has traditionally played a major role in South Africa's economic development, first in connection with diamonds, then gold mining, and more recently secondary industry. The Government's traditional policy has been to welcome and encourage foreign capital, and until mid-1961 it was featured by virtually complete freedom for the foreign investor to repatriate original capital as well as earnings. As a result, total foreign investment in South Africa now amounts to over $4 billion. Of this amount about $560 million [1] is American, spread mainly throughout the mining and secondary industry sectors. Even as emphasis has increased in recent years on greater utilization of domestic sources for risk capital, the need for foreign capital and the technical knowledge generally accompanying it has been recognized as beneficial if not essential to maintain a high rate of economic growth.

Although state-owned enterprises have been created in some areas where private interests have not assumed the risks—in railways, airways, electricity, iron and steel, and production of oil from coal, for example—South African Government policy has traditionally been committed to keeping economic development in private hands wherever possible. Expropriation or nationalization of foreign investments has never been experienced. Government regulations concerning business operations, including taxation, have treated resident aliens the same as South Africans, and by their nature have tended to attract and facilitate foreign capital investment.

Tariff policies have been utilized to provide selective protection to domestic industry. More recently, import control policies also have afforded some shelter to local industry. These, of course, generally operate equally to the advantage of the foreign investor who chooses to establish a manufacturing or assembly plant in the country.

[1] Based on South African estimates which use different definitive and value measurements. U.S. estimates for direct investments only, calculated at book value, place the figure at $304 million (see Chapter II, table 4).

Import controls, especially stringent since a balance-of-payments crisis in mid-1961, affect new firms contemplating the establishment of a factory or assembly plant in South Africa, but under existing regulations permits are readily granted for raw materials or capital equipment not freely available from local sources. Assembly plants based on imported components are considered on their merits.

Since mid-1961, for the first time, the foreign investor in South Africa has faced exchange controls which restrict the previously free repatriation of foreign capital. Profits and dividends still may be repatriated freely, however, and loan capital may be withdrawn depending on the contractual arrangements in specific cases. It is a matter of contention how much these controls are presently affecting the flow of new investment capital into the country. In 1962 the total was considerably higher than the 1961 level, but was somewhat below the level of previous years.

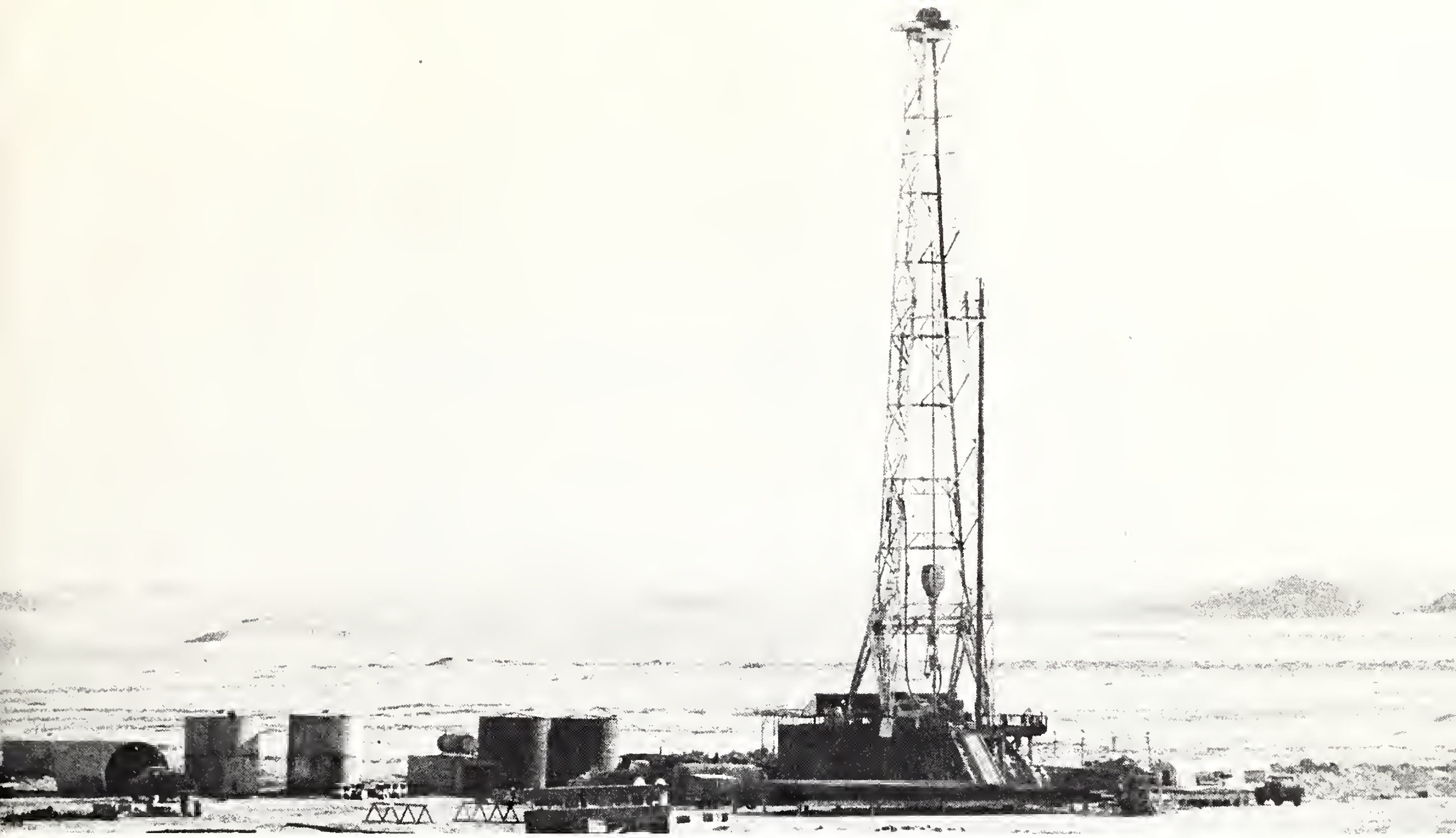
A list of the nonofficial technical factors attractive to U.S. investment in South Africa would compare favorably with conditions found in many advanced West European economies. The existing infrastructure and wide range of financial, commercial, technical, and educational facilities are undoubtedly the best developed in Africa. Coal, iron and steel, and electricity prices are among the lowest in the world. Water is practically the only natural resource not in abundant supply. Labor is generally plentiful, although subject to restrictions stemming from the Government's racial policies. Occasional shortages occur in some of the higher skills, however. Finally, the average return on investments in South Africa is generally considered to range far above those known in the United States.

Notwithstanding the impressive list of factors favoring foreign investment, the South African scene contains a serious element of uncertainty about the politico-economic future, arising both out of Government's apartheid policies and the strong reactions to them at home and abroad. This uncertainty, or wavering of confidence, has to some extent affected the inflow of private foreign capital in recent years. Although technical factors currently are predominantly favorable, and there is every indication that the Government will continue to pursue a policy of welcoming and facilitating foreign investment, the U.S. investor tends to be more cautious about investing in South Africa than he was a few years ago.

The United States Mission in South Africa, and particularly the economic and commercial officers assigned to the Embassy at Pretoria and consular establishments at Johannesburg, Durban, Capetown, and Port Elizabeth, consider the rendering of assistance to present and potential U.S. investors to be a vital part of its task in the country, and indeed, this commands a considerable portion of the officers' attention. Actually most of the American firms already established in South Africa have relatively little need for the Foreign Service Officer's assistance, although some occasions do arise. More frequently help is sought by a U.S. firm contemplating a new investment, or possibly an expansion of an existing enterprise.

To assist these firms, the Embassy and subordinate posts submit a volume of economic and commercial information to Washington where it is disseminated to the U.S. business community.

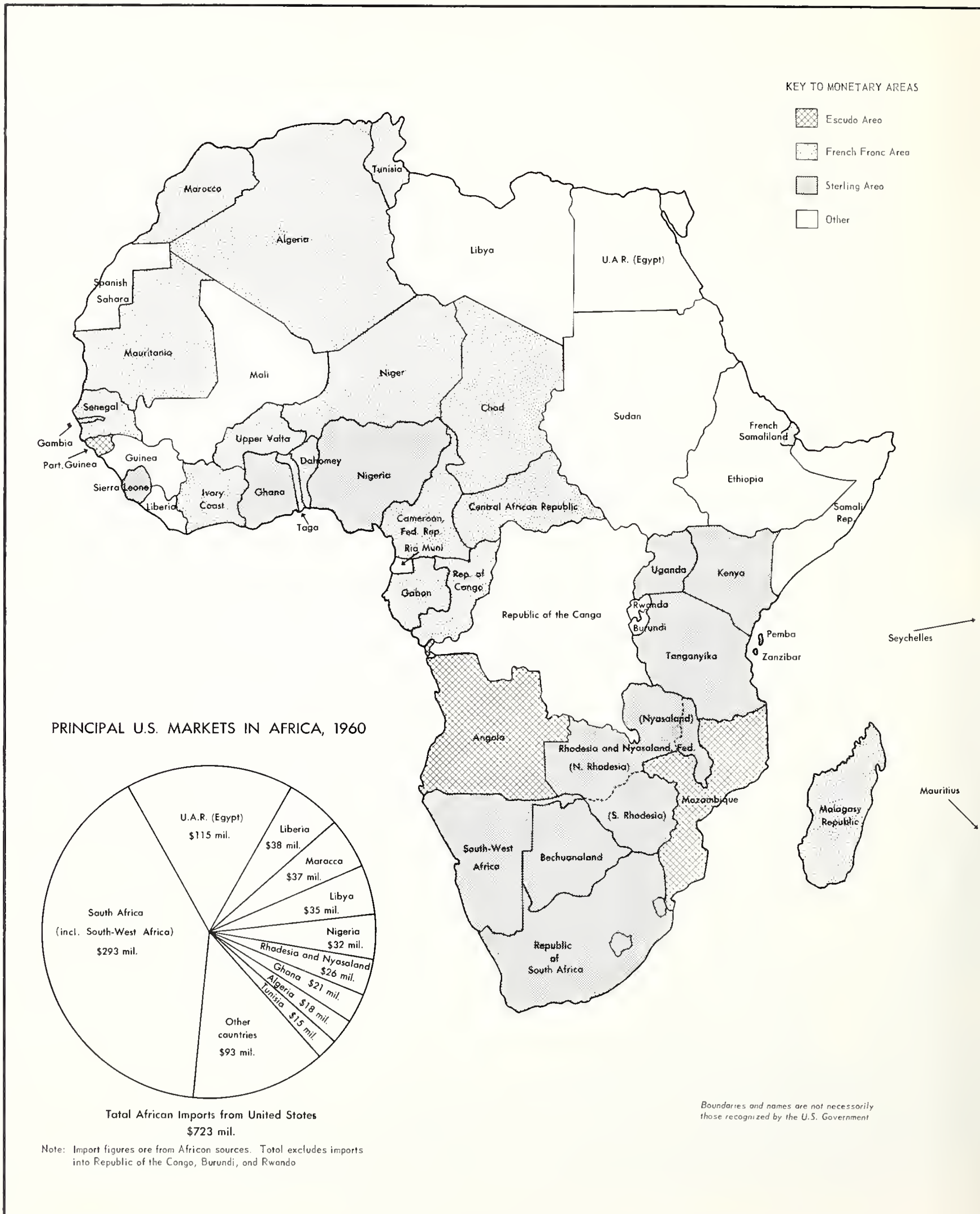
It is recognized that various factors are involved in the investor's decision, depending on whether he faces the loss of an established South African market, previously supplied from the United States, if he does not establish a plant inside a certain South African tariff barrier, or whether he is seeking to enter an entirely new market, or to expand an existing enterprise. The Foreign Service attempts to provide the most balanced possible assessment of politico-economic problems and trends, which the investor can consider in arriving at his decision.



Courtesy Standard Oil Co. (N.J.)

The famous Zelten No. 1 well of Esso Standard (Libya) Inc., site of the first major oil strike in Libya.

Kano Airport, Northern Region, Nigeria. Kano is major commercial and industrial hub of Northern Region and important international airline junction.


PRINCIPAL U.S. MARKETS IN AFRICA, 1960
KEY TO MONETARY AREAS
Escudo Area
French Franc Area
Sterling Area
Other
Morocco
Algeria
Tunisia
Libya
U.A.R. (Egypt)
Spanish Sahara
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Senegal
Gambia
Port. Guinea
Guinea
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ivory Coast
Upper Volta
Ghana
Togo
Dahomey
Nigeria
Cameroon, Fed. Rep.
Rio Muni
Gabon
Rep. of Congo
Central African Republic
Republic of the Congo
French Somaliland
Ethiopia
Somali Rep.
Uganda
Kenya
Rwanda
Burundi
Tanganyika
Pemba
Zanzibar
Seychelles
Angola
(Nyasaland)
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.
(N. Rhodesia)
(S. Rhodesia)
Mozambique
South-West Africa
Bechuanaland
Republic of South Africa
Malagasy Republic
Mauritius
U.A.R. (Egypt) $115 mil.
Liberia $38 mil.
Morocco $37 mil.
Libya $35 mil.
Nigeria $32 mil.
Rhodesia and Nyasaland $26 mil.
Ghana $21 mil.
Algeria $18 mil.
Tunisia $15 mil.
Other countries $93 mil.
South Africa (incl. South-West Africa) $293 mil.
Total African Imports from United States $723 mil.
Note: Import figures are from African sources. Total excludes imports into Republic of the Congo, Burundi, and Rwanda
Boundaries and names are not necessarily those recognized by the U.S. Government

Market Indicators for Africa[1]

Prepared by
International Trade Analysis Division
Office of International Regional Econmics

IN THIS REPORT, selected basic data on population, production, trade, finance, and related subjects are shown, where available, for each of 45 countries or dependent territories located on the continent of Africa or on adjacent islands. The Spanish Sahara, Rio Muni, and Portuguese Guinea, for all of which extensive data are lacking, have not been covered in this report.

The tables provide in ready-reference form the latest comparable annual or year-end figures obtainable from international sources. Most tables include corresponding U.S. data for convenient reference.

The current official country name is used in this report for those countries which selected a new name on becoming independent, although the statistical data presented may relate to a period before independence. Where figures are not yet available for newly independent countries, data are shown for combinations of formerly grouped countries.

While every effort was made to present comparable country figures in tables which show data for a series of years, the changing political boundaries in Africa have occasionally frustrated this attempt. Known inconsistencies of importance have been cited in the footnotes to each table.

[1] Reprinted from *World Trade Information Service* (now *Overseas Business Reports*), part 3, No. 62–20, issued August 1962.

Unless otherwise stated, Algeria includes the two Departments of the Sahara; Ethiopia includes Eritrea; Morocco includes former French and Spanish zones and the international zone of Tangier; Mauritius includes dependencies; Somali Republic includes former British and Italian Somaliland (Somalia); West Africa (former French) includes Dahomey, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Senegal, and Upper Volta; Equatorial Africa (former French) includes Central African Republic, Republic of Chad, Congo Republic, and Republic of Gabon.

Wherever possible, statistics in this report were obtained from publications of the United Nations and other international organizations containing data according to standard definitions. Nevertheless, the information presented may not always be exactly comparable from country to country. In certain instances, data were taken directly from official foreign country publications, particularly in tables 13 and 14.

Space limitations preclude listing the numerous definitions of terms and qualifying notes to the data which are given in the source publications. These definitions and notes should be consulted if exacting use is to be made of the statistics in this report. Source citations for individual tables are furnished on the last page of this appendix.

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Table 1.--Area and Population

Country	Area: Total (square miles)	Area: Arable land and pasture (percent of total)	Area: Forest land (percent of total)	Population: Estimated number, mid-1960 (thousands)	Population: Annual rate of increase, 1953 to 1960 (percent)
Algeria	919,590	19	1	11,020	2.3
Angola	481,351	...	...	4,605	1.1
Cameroon, Fed. Rep.	1/166,795	1/35	1/53	4,097	0.8
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	909,000	22	43	14,150	2.2
Equatorial Africa (former French)					
Central African Rep.	238,000			1,227	1.7
Chad, Rep.	496,000	33	54	2,639	1.7
Congo, Rep.	135,000			780	...
Gabon, Rep.	102,290			440	0.8
Ethiopia	457,266	59	4	19,400	...
French Somaliland	8,494	11	6	67	0.4
Gambia	4,004	21	29	284	0.3
Ghana	91,842	22	64	6,691	6.2
Kenya	224,961	...	3	7,131	2.3
Liberia	43,000	19	44	2,500	...
Libya	679,358	6	-	1,195	1.6
Malagasy Rep.	227,799	65	20	5,393	2.6
Mauritius and Seychelles	873	64	17	699	3.1
Morocco	171,300	39	13	11,626	3.0
Mozambique	297,733	60	25	6,329	1.1
Nigeria 2/	356,668	16	35	35,091	1.9
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.	487,641	3/32	48	8,330	2.6
Northern Rhodesia	288,131	41	50	2,430	2.7
Southern Rhodesia	150,332	3/17	56	3,070	2.8
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed. (continued) Nyasaland	49,178	28	14	2,830	2.2
Rwanda, Rep., and Burundi, Kingdom	20,915	74	4	4,901	2.4
Sierra Leone	27,927	81	4	2,500	2.6
Somali Rep.	246,201	34	23	1,990	0.7
South Africa, Rep.	472,359	80	1	15,780	2.4
South-West Africa	318,100	62	6	522	1.7
Sudan, Rep.	967,497	12	37	11,770	...
Tanganyika	361,799	43	39	9,239	1.8
Togo	22,008	41	9	1,440	4.8
Tunisia	48,332	40	8	4,168	1.5
Uganda	93,981	12	7	6,677	2.5
U.A.R. (Egypt)	386,100	3	-	25,929	2.4
West Africa (former French)					
Dahomey	44,290			1,934	2.8
Guinea	95,000			3,000	4.3
Ivory Coast	127,520			3,230	4.4
Mali	464,873	8	24	4,100	2.1
Mauritania	418,810			640	...
Niger	459,000			2,870	4.1
Senegal	76,000			2,973	5.1
Upper Volta	120,000			3,635	1.6
Zanzibar and Pemba	1,019	59	1	307	1.2
United States	3,615,209	48	35	180,670	1.7

1/Former French Cameroun only. 2/Includes the northern part of former British Cameroons. 3/Excludes fallow land and pasture owned by the native population of Southern Rhodesia.

Table 2.—Population of Major Cities

Country and city	Population (thousands)
Algeria	
Algiers*	800
Oran	299
Constantine	149
Bône	114
Angola	
Luanda*	190
Burundi, Kingdom	
Usumbura*	50
Cameroon, Fed. Rep.	
Douala	125
Yaoundé*	62
Central African Rep.	
Bangui*	82
Chad, Rep.	
Fort-Lamy*	50
Congo, Rep.	
Brazzaville*	94
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	
Leopoldville*	402
Elisabethville	184
Stanleyville	127
Luluabourg	115
Dahomey	
Cotonou*	57
Ethiopia	
Addis Ababa*	500
French Somaliland	
Djibouti*	31
Gabon, Rep.	
Libreville*	17
Gambia	
Bathurst*	22
Ghana	
Accra*	491
Guinea	
Conakry*	43
Ivory Coast	
Abidjan*	155
Kenya	
Nairobi*	261
Mombasa	152
Liberia	
Monrovia*	41
Libya	
Tripoli*	170
Benghazi*	71
Malagasy Rep.	
Tananarive*	248
Mali	
Bamako*	68
Mauritania	
Nouakchott*	...
Mauritius	
Port Louis*	86
Morocco	
Casablanca	961
Marrakech	242
Rabat*	225
Fès	216
Meknès	177
Tangier	142
Mozambique	
Lourenço Marques*	99
Niger	
Niamey*	18
Nigeria	
Ibadan	500
Lagos*	364
Ogbomosho	140
Kano	130
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.	
Northern Rhodesia	
Lusaka*	81
Southern Rhodesia	
Salisbury*	283
Bulawayo	202
Nyasaland	
Zomba*	1/8
Rwanda, Rep.	
Kigali*	4
Senegal	
Dakar*	231
Seychelles	
Victoria*	11
Sierra Leone	
Freetown*	100
Somali Rep.	
Mogadiscio*	91
South Africa, Rep.	
Johannesburg	1,097
Cape Town*	732
Durban	655
Pretoria*	416
Port Elizabeth	271
South-West Africa	
Windhoek*	29
Sudan, Rep.	
Omdurman	116
Khartoum*	93
Tanganyika	
Dar-es-Salaam*	129
Togo	
Lome*	69
Tunisia	
Tunis*	410
Uganda	
Entebbe*	11
U.A.R. (Egypt)	
Cairo*	2,852
Alexandria	1,335
Port Said	226
Tanta	175
Giza	174
Suez	152
Upper Volta	
Ouagadougou*	50
Zanzibar and Pemba	
Zanzibar*	58
United States	
New York	10,695
Los Angeles	6,743
Chicago	6,221
Philadelphia	4,343
Detroit	3,762

Note: Data relate to 1960 or latest available year.
1/Data refer to non-indigenous population and "Africans in employment" only. */Capital city. Tripoli and Benghazi alternate as the capital of Libya. In the Republic of South Africa, Pretoria is the administrative capital; Cape Town, the legislative capital.

Table 3.--Transportation

Country	Railroads				Miles of improved roads	Motor vehicles in use			Apparent gasoline consumption for all uses	International seaborne shipping	
	Locomotives in use	Passenger and freight cars in use	Passenger miles	Freight ton-miles		Passenger automobiles	Buses	Trucks		Goods loaded	Goods unloaded
	(number)	(thousands)	(millions)			(number)			(1,000 bbls.)	(thousand metric tons)	
Algeria	284	10	389	1,074	39,800	170,000	→ 75,000 ←		3,060	14,256	7,404
Angola	202	2	65	757	5,470	26,710	→ 11,000 ←		170	1,908	653
Cameroon, Fed. Rep.	51	1	56	76	6,670	9,800	→ 20,000 ←		425	1/372	1/420
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	464	9	235	1,375	2/3,650	44,930	810	31,180	3/1,530	815	605
East Africa (former British)											
Kenya			...		9,400	40,000	1,160	36,540		1,4/1,236	1,4/2,088
Tanganyika	459	11	...	5/1,657	2,940	15,490	1,480	16,040	2,295	1/595	1/559
Uganda			...		9,810	22,530	490	7,860		...	...
Equatorial Africa (former French)											
Central African Rep.				...	3,000					...	...
Chad, Rep.				...	540					...	...
Congo, Rep.	52	1	39	130	2,290	9,000	200	15,800	680	1,4/425	1,4/342
Gabon, Rep.				...	3,000					1,536	5/157
Ethiopia	82	1	33	101	2,910	15,230		8,430	340	1,4/239	1,4/239
French Somaliland	...	...	...	...	710	1,900	→ 400 ←		85	1/114	1/1,079
Gambia	...	...	...	...	220	800	→ 1,300 ←		...	46	59
Ghana	153	3	171	222	2/7,000	20,660	2,780	16,830	1,190	2,064	1,872
Guinea	(6)	(6)	29	25	3,080	5,140	110	5,410	(6)	1,4/744	1,4/373
Liberia	...	...	...	...	860	5,240	320	3,440	170	3,103	372
Libya	20	(7)	4	1	4,400	17,530	330	9,100	1,020	84	828
Malagasy Rep.	57	1	85	81	16,400	20,080	560	19,970	510	235	450
Mauritius and Seychelles 8/	46	1	...	12	1,090	9,380	→ 3,870 ←		255	357	479
Morocco	106	6	296	1,092	12,100	124,900	→ 47,000 ←		1,530	10,476	2,784
Mozambique	227	6	117	1,152	5,900	20,400	→ 16,060 ←		340	1/3,864	1/2,904
Nigeria	290	5	434	7,338	11,810	43,640	→ 32,430 ←		1,955	9/2,976	9/2,784
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.											
Northern and Southern Rhodesia	429	12	63	8,469	13,630	122,990	→ 50,240 ←			...	...
Nyasaland	32	(7)		72	2,940	6,360	→ 5,340 ←		2,210	...	...
Rwanda, Rep. and Burundi, Kingdom	...	...	...	...	1,740	3,600	→ 2,200 ←		(3)	...	...
Sierra Leone	67	1	55	16	1,780	5,000	→ 3,200 ←		170	1,668	649
Somali Rep.											
British Somaliland	...	...	...	...	3,960	3,060	100	4,560	85	...	...
Italian Somaliland	...	...	...	...					85	159	65
South Africa, Rep., and South-West Africa	3,071	104	...	19,178	117,750	872,320	12,490	226,110	14,025	5,016	7,788
Sudan, Rep.	202	4	...	999	1,530	15,200	→ 13,700 ←		765	679	974
Togo	26	1	49	5	2,690	1,210	→ 2,930 ←		85	48	86
Tunisia	80	5	218	603	5,260	44,000	→ 23,500 ←		680	3,888	1,332
U.A.R. (Egypt)	1,013	22	2,588	1,030	13,100	67,440	3,894	16,220	2,550	5,412	6,360
West Africa (former French)											
Dahomey			44	29	2,900	2,800	→ 2,800 ←			1,4/126	1,4/179
Ivory Coast			137	132	6,750	11,450	→ 11,230 ←			1/1,114	1/768
Mali			...	...	3,580	2,500	→ 4,000 ←			...	...
Mauritania	6/217	6/3	...	...	1,450	440	→ 1,520 ←		6/1,870	...	...
Niger			...	...	4,000	1,270	→ 3,530 ←			...	...
Senegal			173	168	4,230	15,470	→ 14,030 ←			_/1,789	4/2,156
Upper Volta			...	...	3,750	1,900	→ 4,780 ←			...	...
Zanzibar and Pemba	-	-	-	-	450	1,410	→ 590 ←			64	75
United States	31,616	2,060	22,059	519,095	2,556,970	61,683,865	272,129	11,945,477	1,523,115	112,884	193,788

Note: Figures relate to 1960 or latest available year.

1/Includes coastwise shipping. 2/Excludes earth roads graded and drained. 3/The Rep. of Rwanda and the Kingdom of Burundi are included with former Belgian Congo. 4/Principal port only. 5/Excludes livestock. 6/Guinea is included with former French West Africa. 7/Less than one-half the unit. 8/Except for roads and motor vehicles, Mauritius only. 9/Includes former British Cameroons.

Table 4.--Education and Communication

Country	School enrollment: Primary	School enrollment: Secondary and all other	Literate population (percent of population over 14 years of age)	Daily newspapers: Number	Daily newspapers: Average daily circulation	Consumption of newsprint	Telephones in use	Radio sets in use	Motion picture theaters1/: Number	Motion picture theaters1/: Annual attendance
	(thousands of pupils)				(thousands)	(metric tons)	(number per 1,000 persons)			(thousands)
Algeria	734	125	2/8	9	300	9,600	18	46	479	23,500
Angola	86	3/9	4/3	4	23	5/500	2	10	21	1,500
Cameroon, Fed. Rep.	6/435	3,6/15	4/6	1	10	...	2	3	12	...
Central African Rep.	68	7/3	...	1	1	...	1	4	3	...
Chad, Rep.	54	7/1	...	2	1	10	1	1	5	300
Congo, Rep.	89	7/5	...	3	1	...	6	...	9	...
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	1,461	40	...	9	25	8/1,100	2	3	25	1,300
Dahomey	88	3/3	...	2	3	10	1	3	3	450
Ethiopia	171	11	...	5	10	...	1	3	29	...
French Somaliland	2	9/	...	...	...	...	12	71	2	30
Gabon, Rep.	50	3,7/2	...	...	...	...	4	48	3	...
Gambia	7	3/2	...	1	2	10	2	4	4	...
Ghana	483	180	...	5	204	2,600	3	22	127	9,300
Guinea	79	3/6	...	1	1	...	1	...	16	...
Ivory Coast	200	10	...	1	9	100	2	16	17	...
Kenya	781	27	4/20-25	5	38	2,300	6	5	...	...
Liberia	54	3	...	1	1	...	2	40	12	...
Libya	140	12	21	4	9	500	12	22	28	3,400
Malagasy Rep.	412	27	4/33	17	20	5/1,500	3	10	43	2,500
Mali	42	3/3	...	3	3	...	1	2	17	...
Mauritania	6	9/	...	...	...	...	-	7	1	...
Mauritius	91	56	52	9	40	300	14	55	44	7,000
Morocco	796	89	...	11	231	2,600	11	48	177	18,900
Mozambique	420	3/13	4/2	4	20	5/1,800	2	5	30	1,800
Niger	21	3/1	...	1	1	...	1	1	2	...
Nigeria	2,545	121	4/11	20	239	3,600	1	3	55	3,000
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.										
Northern Rhodesia	10/265	10/5	...	1	16		9		17	...
Southern Rhodesia	10/484	10/8	...	4	89	6,100	26	8	15	...
Nyasaland	10/285	10/3	4/6	...	...		2		8	900
Rwanda, Rep. and Burundi, Kingdom	246	5	...	...	...	8/	1	-	80	1,400
Senegal	80	8	...	1	20	...	5	48	52	...
Seychelles	6	3/1	46	2	1	10	5	9	1	...
Sierra Leone	74	9	...	2	15	100	2	3	5	300
Somali Rep.										
British Somaliland	3	2	...	...	...	...	...	5	4	...
Italian Somaliland	16		...	1	2	...	1	...	20	1,300
South African Rep.	2,067	390	4/29	19	897	71,300	59	66	368	55,000
South-West Africa			...	2	7	200	32	35	3	...
Sudan, Rep.	288	64	7	7	39	500	2	1	34	15,300
Tanganyika	451	18	4/15-20	3	17	400	2	2	41	5,000
Togo	79	3/3	...	2	2	...	1	3	1	200
Tunisia	364	62	...	5	67	1,300	6	33	102	6,500
Uganda	502	43	...	5	53	500	2	14	21	1,800
U.A.R. (Egypt)	2,614	607	23	46	500	29,300	9	58	429	72,000
Upper Volta	57	3/3	...	2	1	...	-	1	5	...
Zanzibar and Pemba	14	3/8	5-10	2	...	20	6	14	10	...
United States	29,510	13,034	98	1,755	58,300	6,411,000	408	1/948	16,103	2,200,000

Note: Data relate to 1960 or latest available year.
1/Includes mobile units. 2/Moslem population only. 3/Secondary school enrollment only. 4/African population only. 5/Includes all kinds of printing and writing paper. 6/Includes southern part of former British Cameroons. 7/Students enrolled in higher education are included with data for Republic of Congo. 8/The Rep. of Rwanda and the Kingdom of Burundi are included with former Belgian Congo. 9/Less than one-half the unit. 10/Africans only.

Table 5.--Expenditure on Gross National Product

Country, year, and currency unit	Total GNP: In units of national currency	Total GNP: In millions of dollars	Per capita GNP in dollars	Private consumption	Public consumption	Gross domestic fixed capital formation: Total	Gross domestic fixed capital formation: Construction	Gross domestic fixed capital formation: Machinery and transport equipment	Changes in inventories 1/	Net exports of goods and services 1/
				(in units of national currency)						
Algeria............ 1958.. mil. new francs...	12,500	2,976	286	7,800	4,400	3,000	...	...	-100	-2,600
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)... 1959.. mil. francs.......	60,885	1,218	88	38,460	11,270	11,080	...	...	-115	190
Equatorial Africa (former French)										
Chad, Rep........ 1956.. million metropolitan francs	76,900	220	86	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Congo, Rep........ 1956.. million metropolitan francs	49,800	142	189	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Gabon, Rep........ 1956.. million metropolitan francs	31,000	89	226	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ghana.............. 1959.. mil. pounds.......	482	1,350	275	374	41	64	41	23	2/16	-13
Kenya.............. 1960.. mil. pounds.......	3/223	624	88	...	...	41	23	18	...	...
Libya.............. 1958.. mil. pounds.......	3/52	146	127	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mauritius.......... 1959.. mil. rupees.......	748	157	253	516	93	119	60	59	4/	20
Morocco............ 1958.. mil. francs.......	766,000	1,824	166	...	...	86,000	43,000	43,000	4/	...
Nigeria............ 1956.. mil. pounds.......	842	2,358	72	739	46	...	...	...	...	...
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.... 1959.. mil. pounds.......	498	1,394	171	337	52	131	72	59	3	-25
South Africa, Rep., and South-West Africa 5/.......... 1961.. mil. rands........	5,493	7,690	430	3,531	666	1,146	661	473	-59	209
Sudan, Rep.......... 1959.. mil. pounds.......	382	1,097	96	305	31	38	23	15	3	5
Tanganyika.......... 1959.. mil. pounds.......	6/188	526	58	133	19	29	18	11	...	...
Tunisia............. 1958.. mil. dinars.......	6/7/278	662	163	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uganda.............. 1959.. mil. pounds.......	8/117	328	50	...	...	17	10	7	...	...
U.A.R. (Egypt)...... 1956.. mil. pounds.......	1,129	3,242	137	885	147	110	...	...	...	6/-13
West Africa (former French)........... 1956.. million metropolitan francs	664,000	1,840	95	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United States....... 1961.. mil. dollars......	521,300	521,300	2,839	339,000	108,700	67,400	41,700	25,700	2,200	4,000

Note: The figures shown in columns 2 and 3 should be considered only as rough measures of total and per capita gross national product. Meaningful dollar equivalents for real gross domestic product are difficult to obtain because many internal prices in the various African currencies, translated into dollars through use of prevailing exchange rates, do not realistically reflect prevailing differences in purchasing power.

1/Minus sign indicates decrease in inventories or net imports of goods and services. 2/Changes in stocks of export commodities and of imported commodities held by major companies. 3/Gross domestic product at factor cost. 4/None recorded, or less than one-half the unit. 5/Includes Basutoland, Bechuanaland, and Swaziland. 6/Excludes net factor income from abroad. 7/At 1957 prices. 8/Net domestic product at factor cost.

Table 6.--Origin of Gross Domestic Product

Country and currency unit	Total in national currency (millions)	Average annual growth rate 1/ (percent): Total	Average annual growth rate 1/ (percent): Per capita	Industrial origin: Agriculture, forestry, and fishing	Mining and quarrying	Manfacturing	Construction	Transportation and communication	Wholesale and retail trade	Electricity, gas, and water	Public administration and defense	Other
				(percent of total)								
Algeria.................new francs..	12,100	7.3	5.1	21	3	11	6	5	19	2	22	11
Cameroon, Fed. Rep. 2/...francs......	79,000	...	...	→ 52 ←		→ 9 ←				→ 39 ←		
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)...............francs......	65,065	4.5	2.1	30	17	8	5	9	7	3/	14	10
Congo, Rep..............francs......	24,400	...	...	23				→ 55 ←			→ 22 ←	
Ethiopia................dollars.....	1,686	...	...	78	-	9	2	→ 4 ←			→ 7 ←	
Kenya...................pounds......	223	...	...	40	4/	10	4	9	13	1	→ 23 ←	
Libya...................pounds......	52	...	...	26		→ 23 ←			→ 51 ←			
Mauritius...............rupees......	549	...	...	23	4/	16	6	13	12	2	→ 28 ←	
Morocco 5/..............francs......	735,000	3.0	1.1	34	6	18	4	6/	15	2	→ 21 ←	
Nigeria.................pounds......	910	...	...	63	1	3	5	9	12	3/	→ 7 ←	
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed....................pounds......	558	6.0	3.4	18	22	10	6	6	9	3	4	22
South Africa, Rep....................rands.......	4,478	...	...	11	14	→ 23 ←		7/8	13	6/	10	21
Sudan, Rep..............pounds......	358	...	...	57	4/	5	7	→ 14 ←		4/	→ 17 ←	
Tanganyika..............pounds......	185	...	...	59	3	7	6	7	5	1	7	5
Tunisia.................francs......	219,300	3.3	2.0	31	4	12	3	6	20		→ 24 ←	
Uganda..................pounds......	151	...	...	63	1	7	3	4	9	8/1	→ 12 ←	
U.A.R. (Egypt) 9/.......pounds......	918	2.1	0.3	33	1	12	3	6/	6/	1	→ 50 ←	
United States...........dollars.....	411,078	3.3	1.6	4	1	30	6	6	17	2	13	21

Note: Data relate to 1960 or latest available year. They refer to net domestic product for Republic of South Africa, U.A.R. (Egypt), and the United States.

1/Based on real GDP for 1950-59, or a major part of this period. 2/Former French Cameroun only. 3/Included in "manufacturing". 4/Less than 0.5 percent. 5/Former French Zone only. 6/Included in "other". 7/Transportation only. 8/Electricity only. 9/1956 data expressed in 1954 prices.

Table 7.--Electricity and Gas

Country	Electric power: Installed capacity (1,000 kw.)	Electric power: Production (million kw.-hr.)	Consumption per capita: Electricity (kw.-hr.)	Consumption per capita: Gas (cu. meters)
Algeria	1/423	1,320	121	11.8
Angola	72	130	28	2.2
Cameroon, Fed. Rep.	127	880	215	...
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	845	2,620	148	...
East Africa (former British)	...	...	33	...
Kenya	1/82	1/221	...	...
Tanganyika	1/41	1/155	...	...
Uganda	1/132	1/397	...	...
Equatorial Africa (former French)	1/36	70	14	3.9
Chad, Rep.	1/3	...	...	...
Gabon, Rep.	1/10	...	...	...
Ethiopia	83	100	5	...
French Somaliland	1/3	10	149	...
Gambia	4	5	-	...
Ghana	103	373	55	...
Liberia	19	100	76	...
Libya	1/30	90	75	...
Malagasy Rep.	54	100	19	...
Mauritius	72	140	219	...
Morocco	1/367	1,100	94	1.7
Mozambique	105	210	24	...
Nigeria	173	560	16	...
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.				
Northern Rhodesia	284	1,620		
Southern Rhodesia	801	1,584	459	8.4
Nyasaland	1/10	26		
Rwanda, Rep, and Burundi, Kingdom.	16	16	...	...
Sierra Leone	21	50	20	...
Somali Rep.				
Former British Somaliland	2	2	...	...
Former Italian Somaliland	7	9	5	...
South Africa, Rep.	4,193	24,480	1,551	52.0
South-West Africa	64	...	...	...
Sudan, Rep.	1/44	70	...	...
Togo	2	2	...	...
Tunisia	135	300	72	7.2
U.A.R. (Egypt)	828	2,550	98	0.8
West Africa (former French)	1,2/62	1/220	10	...
Dahomey	1/5	3/10	...	...
Ivory Coast	...	1/67	...	...
Mali	...	15	...	...
Niger	3	8	...	...
Senegal	56	1/127	...	...
Upper Volta	4	1/8	...	...
Zanzibar and Pemba	4	10	33	...
United States	186,795	840,946	4,693	4,942.0

Note: Data refer to the year 1960 or the latest available year.
1/Excludes electricity generated by industrial establishments primarily for their own use. 2/Excludes Guinea. 3/Sales.

Table 8.--Production of Selected Basic Industrial Raw Materials

[1,000 metric tons, except as indicated]

Commodity and country	Quantity 1959	Quantity 1960	Percent of African production 1959	Percent of African production 1960
Asbestos				
Total	298	311	100.0	100.0
South Africa, Rep.	166	160	55.7	51.5
Southern Rhodesia	109	122	36.6	39.2
Other countries	23	29	7.7	9.3
Crude petroleum				
Total	5,964	13,987	100.0	100.0
Algeria	1,330	8,791	22.3	62.9
Gabon, Rep.	753	800	12.6	5.7
Nigeria	554	867	9.3	6.2
U.A.R. (Egypt)	3,155	3,319	52.9	23.7
Other countries	172	210	2.9	1.5
Diamonds, gem and industrial (thousand carats)				
Total	25,451	26,853	100.0	100.0
Angola	1,016	1,057	4.0	3.9
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	14,855	13,453	58.4	50.2
Ghana	3,076	3,272	12.1	12.2
Liberia	971	1,005	3.8	3.7
Sierra Leone 1/	1,205	2,055	4.7	7.6
South Africa, Rep.	3,769	4,077	14.8	15.2
Other countries	1,575	1,934	6.2	7.2
Phosphate rock				
Total	10,759	10,971	100.0	100.0
Algeria	531	548	4.9	5.0
Morocco	7,164	7,472	66.6	68.1
South Africa, Rep.	232	268	2.2	2.4
Tunisia	2,185	2,101	20.3	19.2
Other countries	647	582	6.0	5.3
Antimony ore (metric tons)				
Total	13,634	13,366	100.0	100.0
Algeria	1,030	712	7.5	5.3
Morocco	229	281	1.7	2.1
South Africa, Rep.	12,281	12,282	90.1	91.9
Other countries	94	91	0.7	0.7
Bauxite				
Total	455	1,610	100.0	100.0
Ghana 1/	150	228	33.0	14.2
Guinea	301	1,378	66.2	85.6
Mozambique	4	4	0.8	0.2

Commodity and country	Quantity 1959	Quantity 1960	Percent of African production 1959	Percent of African production 1960
Chrome ore				
Total	545	635	100.0	100.0
Southern Rhodesia	236	291	43.3	45.8
South Africa, Rep.	301	342	55.2	53.9
Other countries	8	2	1.5	0.3
Cobalt ore (metric tons)				
Total	12,369	...	100.0	...
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	8,431	8,200	68.2	...
Morocco	1,208	1,272	9.8	...
Northern Rhodesia	2,059	1,887	16.6	...
Uganda	671	...	5.4	...
Copper ore				
Total	926	965	100.0	100.0
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)2/	282	300	30.5	31.1
Northern Rhodesia	539	567	58.2	58.8
South Africa, Rep.	79	65	8.5	6.7
Other countries	26	33	2.8	3.4
Gold (kilograms)				
Total	686,736	...	100.0	...
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	10,920	...	1.6	...
Ghana	28,401	27,340	4.1	...
Southern Rhodesia	17,632	17,502	2.6	...
South Africa, Rep.	624,108	665,105	90.9	...
Other countries	5,675	4,999	0.8	...
Iron ore				
Total	7,544	8,895	100.0	100.0
Algeria	1,000	1,788	13.3	20.1
Liberia	1,898	2,129	25.2	23.9
Morocco	725	873	9.6	9.8
Sierra Leone	901	955	11.9	10.7
South Africa, Rep.	1,840	1,965	24.4	22.1
Other countries	1,180	1,185	15.6	13.4
Lead ore				
Total	208	212	100.0	100.0
Morocco	91	96	43.8	45.2
South Africa, Rep.	62	62	29.8	29.3
Other countries	55	54	26.4	25.5

Commodity and country	Quantity 1959	Quantity 1960	Percent of African production 1959	Percent of African production 1960
Manganese ore				
Total	1,102	1,202	100.0	100.0
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	193	195	17.5	16.2
Ghana 1/	257	266	23.3	22.1
Morocco	185	175	16.8	14.6
South Africa, Rep.	381	468	34.6	38.9
Other countries	86	98	7.8	8.2
Silver (metric tons)				
Total	343	...	100.0	...
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	148	...	43.1	...
South Africa, Rep.	117	101	34.1	...
Other countries	78	...	22.8	...
Tin concentrates (metric tons)				
Total	18,279	20,591	100.0	100.0
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	9,338	9,000	51.1	43.7
Nigeria	5,612	7,798	30.7	37.9
Rwanda, Rep., and Burundi, Kingdom.	1,142	1,250	6.2	6.1
South Africa, Rep.	1,297	1,551	7.1	7.5
Other countries	890	992	4.9	4.8
Tungsten ore (metric tons)				
Total	728	...	100.0	...
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	650	...	89.3	...
Southern Rhodesia	20	6	2.7	...
South Africa, Rep.	24	20	3.3	...
Uganda	34	67	4.7	...
Vanadium ore (metric tons)				
Total	946	...	100.0	...
Angola	3	...	0.3	...
South Africa, Rep.	943	1,356	99.7	...
Zinc ore				
Total	227	255	100.0	100.0
Algeria	39	39	17.2	15.3
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	70	109	30.8	42.7
Morocco	65	49	28.6	19.2
Northern Rhodesia	30	30	13.2	11.8
Other countries	23	28	10.2	11.0

Note: Quantity figures for all ores relate to metal content.
1/Exports. 2/Primary metal production.

Table 9.—Free World and African Commodity Output

[1,000 metric tons, except as noted]

Commodity	Free world production 1955	Free world production 1960	African production 1955	African production 1960	Percent of free world production 1955	Percent of free world production 1960
Agricultural products						
Cacao	835	1,220	529	860	63	70
Coffee	2,840	3,890	470	770	17	20
Corn	149,781	170,976	10,500	11,940	7	7
Cotton	6,807	7,313	690	920	10	13
Palm kernels	960	1,040	780	830	81	80
Palm oil	1,130	1,170	900	920	80	79
Peanuts	9,274	11,630	3,200	4,080	35	35
Rice (paddy)	126,053	154,216	4,200	4,510	3	3
Sesame seed	1,150	1,050	300	300	26	29
Sugar (raw equivalent)	32,020	50,809	2,220	2,350	7	5
Tobacco	2,895	2,891	170	200	6	7
Wheat	124,143	141,921	5,320	5,570	4	4
Asbestos	1,340	1,540	236	311	18	20
Diamonds, gem (thousand carats)	3,600	6,600	3,052	5,926	85	90
Diamonds, industrial (thousand carats)	17,540	20,700	...	18,980	...	92
Petroleum, crude	689,239	889,771	2,016	13,987	1/	2
Phosphate rock	24,763	32,759	9,059	10,971	37	33
Ores (metal content)						
Antimony (metric tons)	33,300	33,900	16,036	13,366	48	39
Bauxite	14,862	22,903	614	1,610	4	7
Chrome	1,200	1,430	445	635	37	44
Cobalt (metric tons)	14,000	16,660	9,993	...	71	...
Copper	2,699	3,567	650	965	24	27
Gold (kilograms)	836,000	1,044,000	508,372	...	61	...
Iron	130,572	161,752	6,850	...	5	...
Lead	1,851	1,794	230	212	12	12
Manganese	2,253	2,154	927	1,202	41	56
Silver (metric tons)	6,100	6,700	262	...	4	...
Tin (metric tons)	170,620	137,070	25,714	20,591	15	15
Tungsten (metric tons)	27,800	16,900	1,716	...	6	...
Zinc	2,429	2,509	199	255	8	10

1/Less than 0.5%.

Table 10.--Agriculture and Food

Country	Index of agricultural production, 1960-61 (1952-54=100)	Domestic production as percent of apparent consumption: Wheat	Corn	Sorghum and millet	Other grains	Cassava	Meat	Index of per capita food production, 1960-61 (1952-54 = 100)	Per capita food supply (calories per day)	Agricultural tractors in use (number)	Consumption of fertilizer, 1959-60 (thousand m. tons)	Livestock population (number in thousands): Cattle	Sheep	Goats
Algeria	75	101	...	...	109	...	90	65	2,230	26,119	60	645	5,478	2,014
Angola	130	84	144	100	100	103	100	104	2,215	...	1	1,217	119	465
Cameroon, Fed. Rep.1/	136	...	100	100	56	100	100	116	2,470	2/70	3	1,250	500	1,000
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	91	3/100	3/103	3/100	3/101	3/102	3/89	72	3/2,650	619	3/3	1,006	741	1,905
Equatorial Africa (former French)														
Central African Rep.														
Chad, Rep.	5/119	...	100	100	90	100	104	5/111	2,575	838	...	4,375	996	644
Congo, Rep.														
Gabon, Rep.														
Ethiopia	114	100	100	...	100	...	100	103	2,295	6/112	...	21,300	18,850	14,400
French Somaliland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	17	...	10	78	455
Gambia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2/31	...	143	51	455
Ghana	148	...	100	100	45	100	51	117	2,605	2/161	...	...	...	85
Guinea	122	...	100	100	96	100	100	85	2,400	...	...	1,200	...	...
Kenya	145	85	109	100	48	100	107	118	2,240	6,232	6	7,460	6,710	6,400
Liberia	107	...	100	100	93	100	67	97	2,540	...	...	...	...	...
Libya	124	58	...	...	70	...	94	115	2,180	1,040	7/2	100	1,220	1,129
Malagasy Rep.	133	...	...	...	...	...	...	109	...	2,300	1	6,322	389	509
Mauritius	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	290	18	42	2	54
Morocco	68	104	131	...	106	...	101	57	2,480	12,366	29	2,560	10,262	5,349
Mozambique	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,068	3	890	72	348
Nigeria 8/	131	...	100	...	97	100	100	110	2,680	232	3	3,206	3,971	10,123
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.														
Northern Rhodesia										2,390		1,084	35	127
Southern Rhodesia	140	2	108	98	57	100	99	103	2,500	11,438	47	3,580	290	420
Nyasaland										646		343	62	413
Rwanda, Rep., and Burundi, Kingdom	91	3/	3/	3/	3/	3/	3/	73	3/	10	3/	1,008	570	1,792
Sierra Leone	106	...	...	...	...	...	...	86	...	110	...	180	25	30
Somali Rep. 4/	5/179	...	...	...	...	...	...	5/172	...	494	...	842	...	2,917
South Africa, Rep.	121	85	160	140	70	...	102	105	2,620	110,000	208	12,062	38,278	1,529
South-West Africa	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,500	...	3,200	3,125	4,963
Sudan, Rep.	127	100	...	101	99	100	100	108	2,295	1,138	14	7,247	7,846	6,288
Tanganyika	141	40	104	100	100	104	103	121	2,175	1,508	2	7,720	2,874	4,335
Togo	125	...	100	100	82	117	100	96	2,645	15	...	113	321	256
Tunisia	104	98	...	...	95	...	100	90	2,170	10,649	13	604	3,793	1,276
Uganda	122	...	...	...	...	...	...	95	...	507	3	3,590	959	2,765
U.A.R. (Egypt)	134	65	97	100	161	...	96	114	2,340	12,086	133	1,390	1,259	723
West Africa (former French)														
Dahomey	111							90	...		...	300	...	...
Ivory Coast	201							134	...		...	200	...	...
Mali	116							96	...		...	2,900	...	...
Mauritania	...	...	100	100	76	100	100	...	2,450	720	...	1,200	...	...
Niger	148							119	...		...	1,830	...	...
Senegal	140							124	...		...	1,500	450	550
Upper Volta	113							98	...		...	1,550	...	...
Zanzibar and Pemba	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	35	...	35	...	14
United States	111	240	109	207	117	-	97	101	3,220	4,770,000	6,856	96,831	32,968	3,150

Note: Unless otherwise noted, data refer to the latest available year, mainly 1958-1959.

1/Former French Cameroun only, except for tractors. 2/Government owned only. 3/Rep. of Rwanda and Kingdom of Burundi included with Rep. of the Congo. 4/Former Italian Somaliland only. 5/1959-1960. 6/Eritrea only. 7/Tripolitania only. 8/Includes former British Cameroons, except for last 5 columns.

Table 11.--Production of Selected Agricultural Commodities

[1,000 metric tons, except as indicated]

Commodity and country	Quantity		Percent of African production	
	1959	1960	1959	1960
Cassava				
Total	...	...	...	...
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	7,212	...	...	...
Ivory Coast	787	800	...	...
Malagasy Rep.	646	827	...	...
Rwanda, Rep., and Burundi, Kingdom	1,601	...	...	...
Togo	596	564	...	...
Other countries	...	...	...	...
Cocoa beans				
Total	650	860	100.0	100.0
Cameroon, Fed. Rep.	67	74	10.3	8.6
Ghana 1/	311	435	47.9	50.6
Nigeria 1,2/	159	193	24.5	22.4
West Africa (former French)	62	97	9.5	11.3
Other countries	51	61	7.8	7.1
Coffee				
Total	690	770	100.0	100.0
Angola	108	132	15.7	17.1
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	61	60	8.8	7.8
Ethiopia	57	51	8.3	6.6
Malagasy Rep.	50	54	7.2	7.0
Uganda	107	119	15.5	15.5
West Africa (former French)	165	177	23.9	23.0
Other countries	142	177	20.6	23.0
Corn				
Total	10,880	11,940	100.0	100.0
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	333	...	3.1	...
Kenya	1,016	1,157	9.3	9.7
Morocco	398	288	3.7	2.4
Nigeria	1,066	1,170	9.8	9.8
Rwanda, Rep., and Burundi, Kingdom	175	...	1.6	...
South Africa, Rep.	3,801	4,754	34.9	39.8
U.A.R. (Egypt)	1,500	1,692	13.8	14.2
Other countries	2,591	...	23.8	...
Cotton				
Total	900	920	100.0	100.0
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	60	33	6.7	3.6
Sudan, Rep.	129	114	14.3	12.4
Uganda	65	65	7.2	7.1
U.A.R. (Egypt)	457	478	50.8	51.9
Other countries	189	230	21.0	25.0
Dates				
Total	640	...	100.0	...
Algeria	98	...	15.3	...
Morocco	55	...	8.6	...
Tunisia	46	...	7.2	...
U.A.R. (Egypt)	332	...	51.9	...
Other countries	109	...	17.0	...
Figs				
Total	190	...	100.0	...
Algeria	86	98	45.2	...

Commodity and country	Quantity		Percent of African production	
	1959	1960	1959	1960
Figs (continued)				
Morocco	58	...	30.5	...
Tunisia	21	...	11.1	...
Other countries	25	...	13.2	...
Millet and Sorghum				
Total	14,090	...	100.0	...
Ethiopia	1,892	...	13.4	...
Mali	618	785	4.4	...
Niger	938	940	6.7	...
Nigeria	2,900	4,000	20.6	...
Senegal	327	333	2.3	...
Tanganyika	995	994	7.1	...
Uganda	610	610	4.3	...
U.A.R. (Egypt)	630	544	4.5	...
Upper Volta	509	559	3.6	...
Other countries	4,671	...	33.1	...
Palm kernels				
Total	840	830	100.0	100.0
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	162	150	19.3	18.1
Dahomey 3/	51	61	6.1	7.3
Guinea	23	25	2.7	3.0
Nigeria 3/	434	429	51.7	51.7
Sierra Leone	59	57	7.0	6.9
Other countries	111	108	13.2	13.0
Palm oil 4/				
Total	930	920	100.0	100.0
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	245	240	26.3	26.1
Nigeria 3/	433	423	46.6	46.0
Other countries	252	257	27.1	27.9
Peanuts				
Total	3,520	4,080	100.0	100.0
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	174	149	4.9	3.7
Equatorial Africa (former French)	180	185	5.1	4.5
Niger	104	150	3.0	3.7
Nigeria	900	1,150	25.6	28.2
Senegal	832	870	23.6	21.3
South Africa, Rep.	214	283	6.1	6.9
Sudan, Rep.	140	143	4.0	3.5
Uganda	152	163	4.3	4.0
Other countries	824	987	23.4	24.2
Rice (paddy)				
Total	4,380	4,510	100.0	100.0
Malagasy Rep.	1,078	1,193	24.6	26.5
Sierra Leone	264	287	6.0	6.4
U.A.R. (Egypt)	1,535	1,486	35.1	32.9
Other countries	1,503	1,544	34.3	34.2
Rubber				
Total	145	142	100.0	100.0
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	40	36	27.6	25.3

Commodity and country	Quantity		Percent of African production	
	1959	1960	1959	1960
Rubber (continued)				
Liberia	43	42	29.7	29.6
Nigeria	54	60	37.2	42.3
Other countries	8	4	5.5	2.8
Sesame seed				
Total	290	300	100.0	...
Ethiopia	37	...	12.8	...
Nigeria 3/	21	28	7.2	...
Sudan, Rep.	146	146	50.3	...
Other countries	86	...	29.7	...
Sugar, cane, centrifugal, raw value				
Total	2,640	2,350	100.0	100.0
Mauritius	580	236	22.0	10.0
Mozambique 5/	160	156	6.0	6.6
South Africa, Rep.	946	901	35.8	38.3
U.A.R. (Egypt)	337	335	12.8	14.3
Other countries	617	722	23.4	30.8
Sweet potatoes and yams				
Total	...	...	...	...
Ivory Coast	1,845	1,945	...	...
Rwanda, Rep., and Burundi, Kingdom	1,119	...	...	...
Togo	618	808	...	...
Other countries	...	...	...	...
Tobacco				
Total	215	200	100.0	...
Algeria	16	14	7.4	...
Nyasaland	14	...	6.5	...
South Africa, Rep. 6/	38	27	17.7	...
Southern Rhodesia 3/	96	...	44.7	...
Other countries	51	...	23.7	...
Wheat				
Total	5,160	5,570	100.0	100.0
Algeria	1,105	1,505	21.4	27.0
Morocco	956	974	18.5	17.5
South Africa, Rep.	740	771	14.3	13.9
Tunisia	525	452	10.2	8.1
U.A.R. (Egypt)	1,443	1,499	28.0	26.9
Other countries	391	369	7.6	6.6
Wine				
Total	2,590	...	100.0	...
Algeria	1,860	1,580	71.8	...
Morocco	275	...	10.6	...
Tunisia	166	...	6.4	...
Other countries	289	...	11.2	...
Wood, roundwood (million cubic meters, solid volume)				
Total	86	...	100.0	...
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	10	...	11.6	...
Ghana	8	8	9.3	...
Sudan, Rep.	14	14	16.3	...
Tanganyika	21	22	24.4	...
Uganda	8	11	9.3	...
Other countries	25	...	29.1	...

Note: Figures relate to the 1959-60 and 1960-61 crop years, except as noted.

1/Purchases for export. 2/Including part of former British Cameroons. 3/Commercial production only. 4/For countries in which it is known to be important, subsistence production of palm oil has been estimated and included. 5/Calendar year. 6/Marketing year beginning May 1.

Table 12.--Direction of Foreign Trade

[Millions of dollars]

Country and year	Total	United States: Value	United States: Percent of total	European Economic Community: Total	European Economic Community: Benelux	European Economic Community: France	European Economic Community: Germany, Fed. Rep.	United Kingdom	Africa	Japan	Sino-Soviet bloc	Other countries
Importing country	IMPORTS											
Algeria 1/..........................1955..	697.1	18.7	3	547.3	7.5	530.6	4.6	6.3	50.2	3.0	1.7	69.9
1960..	1,264.9	17.8	1	1,101.5	15.9	1,061.8	12.9	9.4	72.6	1.7	11.3	50.6
Angola..............................1955..	93.4	13.5	14	18.1	5.4	2.0	9.2	10.8	1.7	-	0.1	2/49.2
1960..	127.6	12.0	9	24.3	7.6	3.1	11.3	13.6	3.6	0.4	0.4	2/73.3
Cameroon, Fed. Rep. 3/..............1955..	103.8	7.0	7	73.1	2.8	64.9	3.9	3.3	7.6	0.6	1.1	11.1
1960..	84.1	3.4	4	56.5	2.5	49.3	3.8	2.0	10.4	1.0	1.0	9.8
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian), Rwanda, Rep., and Burundi, Kingdom 1955..	379.3	71.9	19	200.2	150.6	14.3	26.1	26.7	30.9	6.2	1.4	42.0
1959..	307.9	39.5	13	163.1	108.9	12.2	29.9	26.0	26.6	2.5	3.1	47.1
Equatorial Africa (former French), total..............................1955..	104.8	8.7	8	70.3	3.9	60.9	4.3	3.3	10.7	0.4	0.2	11.2
Central African Rep...............1960..	20.0	1.2	6	14.5	0.8	12.2	1.2	0.5	1.3	0.1	-	2.4
Chad, Rep..........................1960..	25.0	0.6	2	16.2	0.8	13.2	1.7	0.7	2.9	0.3	0.3	4.0
Congo, Rep.........................1960..	70.1	4.2	6	52.4	2.6	46.3	3.1	1.4	...	...	...	...
Gabon, Rep.........................1960..	31.8	4.0	13	21.8	0.9	18.7	1.9	0.9	1.9	0.1	-	3.1
Ethiopia............................1955..	67.6	8.9	13	19.4	4.2	5.3	-	7.2	3.7	5.5	0.5	22.4
1960..	83.5	12.9	15	27.4	3.5	1.8	8.2	6.8	2.0	11.6	4.5	18.3
French Somaliland...................1960..	13.4	0.4	3	4.7	0.6	3.4	0.3	0.9	...	...	...	...
Gambia..............................1955..	10.4	0.5	5	1.0	0.5	0.2	0.2	5.0	1.1	0.7	0.2	1.9
1959..	8.8	0.2	2	1.1	0.5	0.1	0.4	4.4	...	0.9	...	...
Ghana...............................1955..	246.0	9.3	4	45.1	23.1	3.5	12.3	116.5	13.3	25.0	5.0	31.8
1960..	362.7	20.7	6	92.7	39.3	7.3	39.0	133.1	21.0	30.4	15.1	49.7
Kenya 4/............................1955..	200.3	7.5	4	34.7	12.6	6.5	10.3	88.8	8.3	2.9	0.7	57.4
1960..	251.6	13.9	6	44.6	11.8	8.7	17.2	85.8	13.5	24.9	0.7	68.2
Liberia.............................1955..	26.0	16.1	62	5.2	2.0	6/	2.9	2.8	...	0.2	...	1.7
1960..	69.2	37.6	54	13.2	4.7	0.9	6.0	7.6	...	2.3	...	8.5
Libya...............................1955..	40.1	0.7	2	19.6	2.6	2.2	4.1	10.1	3.1	-	0.1	6.5
1960..	169.1	35.2	21	75.7	10.9	13.1	19.9	35.9	5.1	2.1	2.4	12.7
Malagasy Republic...................1955..	122.4	4.9	4	94.5	2.7	88.9	2.0	2.0	8.8	1.1	0.6	10.5
1960..	111.1	3.2	3	86.3	3.8	78.6	2.8	1.9	5.7	1.7	0.5	11.8
Mauritius...........................1955..	52.6	1.0	2	5.6	1.8	2.2	1.4	21.2	3.9	0.7	0.2	20.0
1960..	69.2	2.0	3	8.8	3.1	2.7	2.7	24.2	7.9	2.8	0.4	23.1
Morocco 5/..........................1955..	496.8	46.4	9	307.7	27.4	241.7	24.9	17.1	24.7	2.6	22.9	75.4
1960..	411.9	37.0	9	252.5	16.4	204.2	18.2	13.4	14.1	1.7	22.6	70.6
Mozambique..........................1955..	94.6	7.7	8	20.2	3.8	2.1	12.6	14.0	14.3	0.6	-	2/37.8
1960..	126.5	7.2	6	25.5	7.3	2.5	12.9	17.8	20.6	0.8	0.4	2/54.2
Nigeria.............................1955..	381.1	15.3	4	63.1	18.5	4.6	29.3	177.9	3.2	46.6	5.6	69.4
1960..	602.7	32.4	5	118.2	41.7	13.7	42.6	255.9	4.7	77.9	11.1	102.5
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.........1955..	388.0	18.6	5	17.4	7.2	1.4	6.0	166.9	138.4	0.9	0.3	45.5
1960..	439.3	26.1	6	38.0	9.4	5.5	18.0	144.8	158.8	5.5	2.0	64.1
Seychelles..........................1960..	2.3	6/	...	0.2	0.1	6/	6/	0.8	0.3	6/	6/	1.0
Sierra Leone........................1955..	47.9	0.8	2	4.1	1.8	0.3	1.2	28.8	2.2	1.0	0.3	10.7
1960..	73.5	2.0	3	9.2	3.7	1.2	2.7	31.1	2.0	8.0	2.0	19.2
Somali Rep.												
Former British Somaliland..........1955..	8.1	0.2	2	0.2	6/	0.1	6/	2.1	0.5	0.3	6/	4.8
1959..	12.4	1.9	15	0.3	0.1	6/	6/	3.5	0.9	0.6	6/	5.2
Former Italian Somaliland..........1959..	18.4	0.9	5	9.3	0.1	6/	0.1	1.2	2.3	0.5	6/	4.2
South Africa, Rep., and South-West Africa...............................1955..	1,346.8	281.2	21	177.0	57.3	17.7	80.9	466.5	97.6	28.6	6.5	289.4
1960..	1,555.4	293.4	19	295.4	62.1	33.3	155.8	441.2	103.3	63.1	14.3	344.7
Sudan, Rep..........................1955..	140.2	3.3	2	22.2	4.5	6.0	5.7	42.9	22.8	4.8	4.1	40.1
1960..	180.5	5.2	3	36.3	7.2	4.6	14.9	49.6	19.6	4.5	16.5	48.8
Tanganyika 4/.......................1955..	121.9	3.4	3	23.4	8.0	5.0	7.5	49.8	4.8	11.9	0.6	28.0
1960..	82.9	2.9	4	15.4	5.0	2.5	6.5	28.7	3.0	9.6	0.5	22.8
Togo................................1960..	26.1	0.4	2	16.9	0.7	13.4	2.6	1.2	3.2	6/	6/	4.4
Tunisia 1955..	180.8	4.5	3	149.1	3.6	136.0	2.0	2.7	11.5	0.2	0.8	12.0
1960..	190.6	15.0	8	137.5	4.9	113.5	7.5	7.2	5.1	0.6	6.8	18.4
Uganda 4/...........................1955..	95.1	2.7	3	16.7	6.1	2.3	5.5	43.5	3.0	3.7	0.3	25.2
1960..	40.3	0.8	2	8.7	1.7	2.2	4.2	13.7	3.0	6.4	0.1	7.6
U.A.R. (Egypt)......................1955..	537.8	62.8	12	174.3	30.8	45.6	55.1	67.7	21.2	13.4	35.7	162.7
1960..	632.4	114.8	18	169.1	25.8	25.3	85.9	39.0	14.4	11.4	139.3	144.4
West Africa (former French), total..1955..	384.0	17.9	5	280.6	10.9	252.4	11.9	10.1	36.6	0.3	0.4	38.1
Dahomey............................1960..	31.0	0.7	2	19.7	1.0	17.8	0.9	0.5	6.4	...	6/	3.7
Guinea.............................1960..	49.9	2.2	4	17.8	0.7	14.9	1.5	1.5	3.6	6/	22.0	2.8
Ivory Coast........................1960..	120.1	4.3	4	95.1	3.6	84.6	5.1	2.5	6.9	-	-	11.3
Niger..............................1960..	13.6	0.2	2	7.6	0.3	6.9	0.3	0.3	4.7	-	-	0.8
Senegal 7/.........................1960..	172.1	5.7	4	132.8	5.3	118.2	5.6	3.0	8.5	-	4.0	18.1
Upper Volta........................1960..	8.2	6/	6/	6.1	0.1	5.9	0.1	0.1	...	...	...	...
Zanzibar and Pemba..................1955..	18.8	0.1	1	1.9	1.0	0.2	0.5	5.3	3.1	0.8	6/	7.6
1960..	14.7	0.8	5	1.5	0.7	0.3	0.3	2.8	3.6	1.0	0.1	4.9
United States.......................1955..	11,490.7	...	...	1,138.2	389.5	202.2	366.2	616.0	677.7	431.9	55.8	8/8,571.1
1960..	15,017.5	...	...	2,262.9	576.5	396.1	897.2	992.7	626.6	1,148.7	80.9	8/9,905.7
Exporting country	EXPORTS											
Algeria 1/..........................1955..	463.0	5.1	1	370.2	6.0	341.4	15.0	34.9	30.5	0.1	5.0	17.2
1960..	394.3	0.6	6/	339.1	2.7	318.7	10.7	21.7	16.0	0.4	2.1	14.4
Angola..............................1955..	97.5	22.5	23	23.9	11.7	3.3	8.3	13.3	5.7	0.1	-	2/32.0
1960..	123.4	23.4	19	32.9	14.6	3.0	11.9	18.6	9.6	0.2	2.2	2/36.5
Cameroon, Fed. Rep. 3/..............1955..	94.6	10.3	11	72.1	18.8	45.2	5.0	3.4	5.6	-	0.5	2.7
1960..	96.9	6.1	6	81.9	19.4	55.3	3.9	1.6	5.1	0.2	0.5	1.5

-continued-

Table 12.--Direction of Foreign Trade--Continued

[Millions of dollars]

Country and year	Total	United States		European Economic Community				United Kingdom	Africa	Japan	Sino-Soviet bloc	Other countries
		Value	Percent of total	Total	Benelux	France	Germany, Fed. Rep.					
Exporting Country	EXPORTS (Continued)											
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian),												
Rwanda, Rep., and Burundi, Kingdom.1955..	468.8	78.3	17	315.5	254.3	31.9	14.3	37.4	18.7	0.2	-	18.7
1959..	500.1	54.1	11	324.8	235.8	26.0	25.5	42.8	22.1	0.8	-	55.5
Equatorial Africa (former French),												
total.....1955..	78.2	1.3	2	60.4	3.6	48.2	8.5	2.6	9.8	-	0.1	4.0
Central African Rep.....1960..	13.9	0.7	5	10.7	1.4	9.1	0.1	0.2	1.5	-	-	0.8
Chad, Rep.....1960..	13.2	-	-	9.6	0.1	9.2	0.3	-	3.5	-	-	0.1
Congo, Rep.....1960..	17.9	0.3	2	14.1	2.9	5.0	6.0	0.4	...	...	...	...
Gabon, Rep.....1960..	47.8	1.2	2	36.8	2.4	24.5	9.4	2.4	3.2	0.2	-	4.0
Ethiopia.....1955..	65.3	16.4	25	15.4	1.8	0.8	0.6	2.6	2.0	-	-	28.9
1960..	73.9	27.2	37	11.6	2.2	1.9	1.4	4.5	3.8	2.1	0.5	24.2
French Somaliland.....1960..	0.9	6/	6/	0.6	6/	0.5	6/	6/	...	...	...	...
Gambia.....1955..	7.4	6/	...	2.4	0.2	2.0	0.2	4.6	0.4	-	-	-
1959..	8.3	-	...	4.8	0.1	6/	0.5	1.9	0.3	-	-	1.3
Ghana.....1955..	267.9	48.8	18	72.0	31.2	3.6	31.5	107.9	5.7	-	11.5	22.0
1960..	325.2	49.2	15	114.1	49.1	2.9	43.7	101.6	11.6	2.5	22.7	23.5
Kenya.....1955..	78.4	7.8	10	21.4	4.6	1.0	13.1	22.8	7.7	1.3	-	17.4
1960..	112.6	11.0	10	29.1	4.7	1.7	18.3	27.0	11.8	5.7	1.0	27.0
Liberia.....1955..	42.8	37.2	87	4.2	2.6	6/	1.6	0.9	...	...	...	0.5
1960..	82.6	43.6	53	25.2	16.4	0.2	6.8	11.6	...	6/	...	2.2
Libya.....1955..	12.9	-	-	6.4	0.3	0.1	1.0	2.7	1.6	-	-	2.2
1960..	11.2	0.1	1	6.0	1.0	0.7	0.7	1.7	1.5	-	0.7	1.2
Malagasy Rep.....1955..	81.5	12.0	15	54.8	0.5	52.9	0.9	1.7	10.3	0.1	0.3	2.3
1960..	74.5	9.6	13	46.2	1.1	41.8	2.4	1.9	14.0	0.6	0.8	1.4
Mauritius.....1955..	52.9	0.2	6/	-	-	-	-	42.0	0.5	-	-	10.2
1960..	50.7	-	-	1.1	0.7	0.2	0.1	34.6	6.9	3.5	-	4.6
Morocco 5/.....1955..	327.7	12.6	4	209.6	15.6	148.8	24.8	17.5	45.7	1.7	9.6	31.0
1960..	352.9	9.9	3	211.6	19.5	142.4	32.3	23.2	48.7	2.8	15.5	41.2
Mozambique.....1955..	59.0	3.1	5	7.1	1.9	3.2	1.9	4.1	12.1	0.1	-	2/32.5
1960..	72.7	4.2	6	5.7	1.7	1.5	1.7	5.6	5.6	1.3	0.1	2/50.2
Nigeria.....1955..	371.1	34.0	9	61.8	32.0	8.9	11.9	254.3	4.2	-	0.7	16.1
1960..	461.8	43.7	10	139.4	67.0	17.8	35.0	220.0	3.2	6.9	1.8	46.8
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.....1955..	483.8	62.5	13	61.4	11.8	14.4	22.8	261.3	64.5	0.4	-	33.7
1960..	576.6	21.3	4	117.9	12.1	17.2	62.4	254.8	56.3	17.8	17.1	91.4
Seychelles.....1960..	1.5	0.1	7	0.2	0.1	6/	0.1	0.2	0.1	-	6/	0.9
Sierra Leone.....1955..	28.6	1.8	6	5.4	1.9	-	3.4	20.0	1.1	-	-	0.3
1960..	72.6	1.4	2	9.7	6.8	0.1	2.8	60.2	0.6	0.1	-	0.6
Somali Republic												
Former British Somaliland.....1955..	3.9	0.1	3	0.2	-	0.1	-	0.1	0.4	-	-	3.1
1959..	5.6	0.1	2	0.4	-	0.2	6/	0.2	0.2	-	-	4.7
Former Italian Somaliland.....1959..	14.8	0.4	3	11.3	-	6/	6/	6/	0.6	-	6/	2.5
South Africa, Rep., and South-West												
Africa.....1955..	1,033.3	83.4	8	198.3	73.9	36.0	45.4	348.2	203.6	15.2	15.2	169.4
1960..	1,225.8	83.2	7	200.5	73.9	40.7	48.6	377.8	227.4	42.6	18.7	275.6
Sudan, Rep.....1955..	145.1	3.4	2	43.8	4.7	13.4	12.1	40.8	16.8	1.1	4.0	35.2
1960..	181.7	5.7	3	40.2	7.5	8.8	11.4	47.3	10.4	5.1	23.5	49.5
Tanganyika.....1955..	104.7	9.7	9	24.8	11.6	1.8	7.8	37.5	7.7	4.5	-	20.5
1960..	158.0	14.1	9	33.5	17.7	3.0	13.6	48.9	9.2	8.9	0.8	42.6
Togo.....1960..	14.5	1.0	7	11.5	2.1	9.0	0.2	0.2	1.4	0.1	0.1	0.2
Tunisia.....1955..	106.6	2.5	2	73.6	2.9	58.7	3.2	12.1	7.6	0.1	1.3	9.4
1960..	119.6	0.3	6/	79.9	2.0	62.5	2.8	8.7	11.3	0.6	3.9	14.9
Uganda.....1955..	118.5	17.7	15	22.7	3.8	1.0	9.6	23.0	10.7	1.2	-	43.2
1960..	120.7	17.8	15	25.0	10.5	1.8	9.5	19.4	10.4	3.2	5.1	39.8
U.A.R. (Egypt).....1955..	419.4	26.0	6	94.8	15.5	34.8	22.9	23.1	27.7	23.9	106.1	117.8
1960..	550.1	28.6	5	67.8	9.5	10.8	26.7	13.3	18.6	15.3	199.7	206.8
West Africa (former French), total..1955..	299.5	27.5	9	219.3	19.6	186.7	8.7	6.4	34.2	-	2.0	10.1
Dahomey.....1960..	18.3	6/	6/	14.1	1.5	12.3	0.3	0.1	3.2	...	0.4	0.5
Guinea.....1960..	55.1	0.4	1	22.4	5.8	15.6	0.8	2.0	7.0	-	12.6	10.9
Ivory Coast.....1960..	151.0	22.7	15	79.2	-	79.2	-	1.3	18.5	-	-	29.3
Niger.....1960..	12.5	0.4	3	8.9	-	8.9	-	-	3.2	-	-	-
Senegal 7/.....1960..	112.0	0.1	...	94.5	0.9	92.2	0.8	3.2	9.9	-	-	4.3
Upper Volta.....1960..	4.3	-	-	0.2	0.1	0.1	-	-	...	...	...	...
Zanzibar and Pemba.....1955..	19.0	0.5	3	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.7	5.5	0.2	...	11.4
1960..	15.7	0.9	6	1.0	0.4	-	0.3	0.8	2.4	0.3	0.1	10.2
United States 9/.....1955..	13,956.8	...	...	2,144.0	802.6	368.3	599.4	941.0	622.8	650.9	7.0	8/9,591.1
1960..	18,892.4	...	...	3,460.9	1,153.9	581.7	1,070.9	1,411.0	765.8	1,341.3	193.9	8/11,719.5

Note: Imports are reported f.o.b. by Fed. of Rhodesia and Nyasaland and Rep. of South Africa.

1/Beginning 1960, excludes the departments of the Sahara. 2/Includes trade with Portugal as follows, in millions of U.S. dollars: Angola, imports—1955, 43.7; 1960, 59.7; and exports—1955, 22.0; 1960, 30.0; and Mozambique, imports—1955, 25.9; 1960, 36.3; and exports—1955, 23.5; 1960, 35.1. 3/Former French Cameroun only. 4/For Kenya, Tanganyika, and Uganda, excludes imports from each other. 5/Former French Zone only. 6/Less than one-half the unit. 7/Prior to July 1, 1960, refers to Senegal, Mali, and Mauritania; from July 1, 1960, to August 20, 1960, to Senegal and Mali; and beginning August 20, 1960, to Senegal only. 8/Includes trade as follows, in millions of U.S. dollars: with Canada, imports—1955, 2,679.5; 1960, 3,153.1; and exports—1955, 3,254.9; 1960, 3,709.2; and with Latin American Republics, imports—1955, 3,328.0; 1960, 3,528.0; and exports—1955, 3,236.9; 1960, 3,478.1. 9/Excludes special category shipments, valued as follows, in millions of U.S. dollars: 1955, 1,593.2; 1960, 1,665.5.

Table 13.--Exports of Principal Commodities

[Quantity in thousands of metric tons, except as indicated; value in thousands of dollars]

Commodity and exporting country	Exports to world				Exports to United States				Exports to two major other destinations					
	Quantity		Value		Quantity		Value		Country	Value		Country	Value	
	1959	1960	1959	1960	1959	1960	1959	1960		1959	1960		1959	1960
Asbestos														
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed...........	94	116	19,928	23,430	5	6	1,128	1,666	United Kingdom........	8,112	9,906	India..................	4,444	4,365
South Africa, Rep.....	153	190	29,756	35,984	32	31	6,451	6,103	United Kingdom........	5,785	10,116	Japan..................	1,838	2,448
Bananas and plantains														
Guinea...............	67	55	4,416	4,646	-	-	-	-	Germany, Sov. Zone....	...	1,981	U.S.S.R................	...	1,215
Nigeria...............	69	69	7,302	7,297	...	...	...	...	United Kingdom........	7,008	7,232	....	...	...
Somali Rep............	59	...	9,100	...	...	...	...	...	....	...	...	....	...	...
Bauxite and aluminum semimanufactures														
Cameroon, Fed. Rep....	...	...	9,804	17,832	...	...	5,007	1,262	France................	765	13,439	Belgium-Luxembourg.....	1,924	2,403
Guinea...............	280	876	...	15,232	...	-	...	-	Canada................	...	5,133	France.................	...	3,759
Ghana................	150	228	1,026	1,540	-	-	-	-	United Kingdom........	1,026	1,208	Germany, Fed. Rep......	-	118
Cacao														
Cameroon, Fed. Rep....	53	59	37,967	32,839	5	6	3,829	3,238	Netherlands...........	13,547	13,911	France.................	13,679	11,076
Ghana................	254	308	192,581	186,071	62	58	45,976	33,984	Germany, Fed. Rep.....	37,948	37,027	United Kingdom.........	28,689	28,350
Ivory Coast...........	63	63	42,995	35,315	13	13	8,949	7,574	France................	14,027	14,284	Netherlands............	8,566	5,819
Nigeria..............	145	156	107,209	98,160	25	35	17,998	21,759	United Kingdom........	35,218	26,779	Netherlands............	29,562	19,869
Cashew nuts and kernels														
Mozambique...........	63	57	6,947	8,119	1	1	636	938	India.................	5,903	6,671	Goa....................	252	282
Chromium ore and concentrates														
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed...........	500	490	10,304	9,856	280	261	5,849	5,370	Norway................	941	1,305	South Africa, Rep......	658	932
South Africa, Rep.....	609	756	7,879	8,435	424	486	5,277	5,264	Germany, Fed. Rep.....	787	1,204	United Kingdom.........	553	846
Citrus fruit														
Algeria..............	234	239	25,564	24,699	-	-	-	-	France................	25,212	23,196	Germany, Fed. Rep......	314	1,461
Morocco..............	270	331	27,099	35,536	-	-	-	-	France................	17,704	20,595	Germany, Fed. Rep......	4,941	7,297
South Africa, Rep.....	223	297	28,210	26,537	-	-	-	-	United Kingdom........	15,127	12,715	Germany, Fed. Rep......	3,133	3,658
Cloves														
Zanzibar and Pemba....	9	13	7,442	9,899	1/	1	308	669	Indonesia.............	4,155	6,008	India..................	787	712
Cobalt ore and semimanufactures														
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian).....	12	...	28,737	...	...	...	...	...	....	...	...	....	...	...
Morocco..............	11	12	1,506	1,448	-	-	-	-	France................	1,170	978	China (Communist)......	-	246
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed...........	1	1	5,340	4,200	1/	1/	1,173	678	United Kingdom........	3,438	2,783	South Africa, Rep......	543	434
Coffee														
Angola...............	89	87	48,257	43,961	53	46	28,005	22,477	Netherlands...........	10,779	10,082	Portugal...............	4,996	5,702
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian).....	92	...	1,230	...	20	...	263	...	Belgium-Luxembourg....	233	...	Italy..................	178	...
Ethiopia.............	42	54	37,581	45,576	...	33	...	27,657	Italy.................	...	3,476	Aden...................	...	2,600
Ivory Coast..........	105	148	64,682	75,726	21	38	11,466	13,428	France................	38,559	41,454	Algeria................	12,108	12,477
Uganda...............	90	119	52,242	47,564	32	43	17,752	17,066	United Kingdom........	14,003	9,794	Australia..............	2,999	2,646
Copper ore and semimanufactures														
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian).....	282	...	159,704	...	5	-	2,544	-	Belgium-Luxembourg....	29,247	...	Italy..................	21,123	...
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed...........	546	588	306,113	342,454	25	13	14,398	8,299	United Kingdom........	139,793	144,942	Germany, Fed. Rep......	40,726	51,302
Copra														
Mozambique...........	38	41	7,340	6,759	-	-	-	-	Norway................	2,080	1,688	Portugal...............	499	1,571
Nigeria..............	9	7	1,420	1,341	-	-	-	-	....	...	...	....	...	...
Zanzibar and Pemba....	8	5	1,562	868	-	-	-	-	India.................	1,058	...	Germany, Fed. Rep......	196	...
Cotton, raw														
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian).....	50	...	27,375	...	-	-	-	-	Belgium-Luxembourg....	24,542	...	United Kingdom.........	1,224	...
Central African Rep. and Chad, Rep........	40	25	21,660	14,455	-	-	-	-	France................	18,866	12,608	Belgium-Luxembourg.....	805	942
Sudan, Rep...........	180	106	115,282	95,201	-	-	-	-	United Kingdom........	35,687	32,652	India..................	19,845	17,654
Uganda...............	68	60	43,142	41,804	-	-	-	-	India.................	19,600	21,728	Germany, Fed. Rep......	3,867	6,286
U.A.R. (Egypt)........	318	374	316,362	386,988	2	21	1,875	17,829	U.S.S.R...............	81,367	88,165	China (Communist)......	33,792	44,536
Cotton, yarn														
U.A.R. (Egypt)........	13	20	19,926	26,190	...	1	...	933	Germany, Sov. Zone....	7,263	7,711	Germany, Fed. Rep......	864	3,805
Diamonds (1,000 carats)														
Angola...............	1,021	934	20,743	17,257	-	-	-	-	United Kingdom........	20,743	17,257	....	-	-
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian).....	15,954	10,356	34,493	22,230	-	-	-	-	United Kingdom........	34,484	21,765	Belgium-Luxembourg.....	9	465
Ghana................	3,117	3,292	24,245	27,549	66	92	549	745	United Kingdom........	15,834	20,342	Belgium-Luxembourg.....	6,135	5,779
Sierra Leone..........	1,205	2,055	19,065	46,150	-	-	-	-	United Kingdom........	19,065	46,150	....	-	-
South Africa, Rep.....	1,814	1,727	106,450	96,526	88	91	7,865	7,461	United Kingdom........	73,632	64,245	Belgium................	14,801	13,665
Tanganyika............	555	537	12,734	13,028	-	-	-	-	United Kingdom........	12,734	13,028	....	-	-
Gum arabic														
Sudan, Rep...........	42	52	14,190	19,452	9	11	3,195	4,463	United Kingdom........	3,136	2,957	Italy..................	1,173	1,677
Hides and skins														
Ethiopia.............	...	...	8,891	8,732	...	...	...	1,603	Italy.................	...	2,024	United Kingdom.........	...	1,545
South Africa, Rep.....	47	44	38,608	35,330	1	1	1,109	1,191	United Kingdom........	16,316	14,204	Italy..................	6,069	6,367
Iron ore and concentrates														
Algeria..............	2,025	3,584	18,676	28,733	-	-	-	-	United Kingdom........	13,961	17,561	Germany, Fed. Rep......	502	6,063
Liberia..............	2,708	2,962	28,249	34,642	1,106	794	11,535	8,283	Netherlands...........	7,469	12,199	United Kingdom.........	3,695	8,999
Morocco..............	716	812	5,403	7,057	5	-	100	-	United Kingdom........	2,364	4,392	Germany, Fed. Rep......	415	1,038
Sierra Leone..........	1,527	1,565	11,469	11,528	63	47	...	...	United Kingdom........	2/	2/	Netherlands............	2/	2/
Tunisia..............	833	1,041	7,605	7,916	...	...	...	...	France................	664	1,119	....	...	...
Manganese ore														
Ghana................	535	555	18,978	17,872	281	363	9,817	11,175	Norway................	3,996	3,704	United Kingdom.........	3,654	1,252
Morocco..............	386	387	14,713	16,076	71	65	3,746	3,793	France................	9,426	10,787	Norway.................	485	341
South Africa, Rep.....	481	881	10,203	15,938	145	220	4,164	4,908	France................	2,170	3,394	United Kingdom.........	969	2,304

- continued -

Table 13.--Exports of Principal Commodities--Continued

[Quantity in thousands of metric tons, except as indicated; value in thousands of dollars]

Commodity and exporting country	Exports to world				Exports to United States				Exports to two major other destinations					
	Quantity		Value		Quantity		Value		Country	Value		Country	Value	
	1959	1960	1959	1960	1959	1960	1959	1960		1959	1960		1959	1960
Oil cake														
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian).....	96	...	6,247	...	-	...	-	...	Germany, Fed. Rep.....	3,703	...	Belgium-Luxembourg.....	969	...
Senegal, Mali, and Mauritania..........	154	163	8,216	8,596	-	-	-	-	France...............	4,022	2,788	United Kingdom.........	1,203	2,200
Olive oil														
Tunisia...............	79	26	36,079	14,312	...	...	...	...	France...............	11,984	8,548	....	...	...
Palm kernels														
Dahomey...............	44	61	5,978	8,818	-	-	-	-	France...............	4,605	6,295	Netherlands............	613	1,368
Nigeria...............	437	425	72,719	70,272	...	...	...	...	United Kingdom........	42,538	39,729	Netherlands............	18,704	16,534
Sierra Leone..........	58	55	8,893	8,168	-	-	-	-	United Kingdom........	5,835	6,356	Netherlands............	2,002	1,380
Palm oil														
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian).....	184	...	37,653	...	15	...	2,933	...	Belgium-Luxembourg....	16,207	...	Germany, Fed. Rep......	6,662	...
Nigeria...............	187	186	38,662	36,907	...	...	...	...	United Kingdom........	34,625	29,845	Netherlands............	1,851	3,895
Peanuts														
Gambia................	41	...	6,811	...	-	...	-	...	Italy.................	4,179	...	Switzerland............	1,242	...
Niger.................	52	51	8,142	7,320	-	...	1	...	France...............	7,965	...	Algeria................	115	...
Nigeria...............	505	337	76,922	61,477	...	...	...	...	United Kingdom........	29,380	16,564	France.................	9,881	14,728
Senegal, Mali, and Mauritania...........	288	253	49,718	43,770	-	-	-	-	France...............	46,760	42,559	Algeria................	883	993
South Africa, Rep.....	42	47	7,784	9,227	-	1/	-	17	United Kingdom........	3,161	2,285	Rhodesia and Nyasa- land, Fed............	1,849	1,383
Peanut oil														
Nigeria...............	49	47	12,953	14,829	...	...	...	...	United Kingdom........	11,066	14,426	Netherlands............	1,456	202
Senegal, Mali, and Mauritania...........	114	114	42,951	42,969	-	-	-	-	France...............	37,691	37,234	Algeria................	3,835	4,128
Petroleum, crude														
Algeria...............	835	8,054	16,953	...	-	36	-	...	France...............	16,552	3/	Germany, Fed. Rep......	401	3/
Congo, Rep. and Gabon, Rep...........	781	809	11,463	10,506	-	-	-	-	France...............	11,463	10,303	Italy..................	-	203
Nigeria...............	562	841	7,566	12,342	-	...	-	...	United Kingdom........	4,931	11,631	Netherlands............	2,635	711
U.A.R. (Egypt)........	1,081	868	10,101	8,323	-	-	-	-	Italy.................	9,851	3,670	Yugoslavia.............	250	201
Phosphate rock														
Morocco...............	7,061	7,589	67,253	84,001	-	-	-	-	France...............	10,059	12,439	United Kingdom.........	6,527	9,459
Tunisia...............	1,961	1,688	18,465	15,062	...	...	...	...	France...............	4,631	3,455	Italy..................	3,931	...
Rice														
Malagasy Rep..........	30	24	5,052	4,770	...	-	...	-	France...............	3,228	3,785	Reunion and Comoro Is..	660	965
U.A.R. (Egypt)........	23	280	3,085	28,229	-	-	-	-	Germany, Fed. Rep.....	129	2,065	Lebanon................	1,964	1,542
Rubber, natural														
Liberia...............	44	58	30,727	39,060	41	51	28,035	32,825	United Kingdom........	1,176	2,602	Germany, Fed. Rep......	880	1,677
Nigeria...............	54	58	32,494	39,886	11	15	6,918	11,071	United Kingdom........	11,323	13,787	Germany, Fed. Rep......	4,682	5,718
Sisal														
Angola................	54	58	10,073	13,059	5	1	766	160	Portugal..............	2,433	4,557	France.................	2,283	1,844
Kenya.................	52	58	9,682	12,785	2	2	266	375	United Kingdom........	1,996	2,590	Japan..................	1,081	1,336
Mozambique............	28	26	5,170	5,841	7	8	1,247	1,776	France...............	789	722	Germany, Fed. Rep......	318	691
Tanganyika............	212	211	36,420	43,238	23	20	3,212	4,049	United Kingdom........	12,603	14,638	Australia..............	2,456	3,388
Sugar, cane, unrefined														
Mauritius.............	512	...	56,592	...	-	...	-	...	United Kingdom........	46,750	...	Canada.................	7,879	...
Mozambique............	114	111	10,071	9,677	1/	1/	1/	1/	Portugal..............	9,061	8,853	Goa....................	984	809
South Africa, Rep.....	248	261	21,214	21,568	-	1/	-	1	United Kingdom........	13,210	13,502	Rhodesia and Nyasa- land, Fed.	5,953	3,462
Tea														
Kenya.................	10	11	3,602	4,411	1	2	439	646	United Kingdom........	1,954	2,679	South Africa, Rep......	236	250
Mozambique............	8	8	5,373	6,136	1	1/	283	282	United Kingdom........	3,863	4,847	Germany, Fed. Rep......	107	264
Rhodesia and Nyasa- land, Fed...........	10	11	7,957	10,744	1/	1/	59	193	United Kingdom........	7,465	9,929	Ireland................	104	224
Uganda................	3	4	3,321	4,068	1/	1/	129	462	United Kingdom........	1,814	1,991	Netherlands............	599	498
Tin ore and con- centrates														
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian).....	10	...	14,831	...	-	...	-	...	Belgium-Luxembourg....	14,649	...	Germany, Fed. Rep......	179	...
Nigeria...............	8	11	11,802	16,926	-	-	-	-	United Kingdom........	11,802	16,926	....	-	-
Tobacco														
Algeria...............	5	8	2,907	5,954	-	-	-	-	France...............	2,397	5,545	Morocco................	39	139
Rhodesia and Nyasa- land, Fed...........	80	87	93,705	103,538	1/	1/	151	347	United Kingdom........	64,425	70,344	Germany, Fed. Rep......	5,757	7,652
Uranium														
South Africa, Rep.....	...	...	137,844	151,942	...	...	...	...	....	...	...	....	...	...
Vanilla (metric tons)														
Malagasy Rep..........	400	300	9,067	6,653	300	200	7,894	5,627	France...............	723	726	Germany, Fed. Rep......	433	243
Wheat														
Tunisia...............	70	117	8,210	12,434	...	...	...	...	France...............	8,143	5,207	....	...	...
Wine (million gallons)														
Algeria...............	347	385	181,641	211,187	1/	1/	2	3	France...............	177,869	207,298	Switzerland............	441	507
Morocco...............	47	36	16,456	11,454	1/	1/	13	8	France...............	11,483	6,351	Algeria................	3,204	2,843
Wood														
Equatorial Africa (former French)......	871	1,018	32,831	39,499	3	3	294	273	Germany, Fed. Rep.....	10,811	14,702	France.................	11,033	12,542
Ghana.................	...	893	37,072	44,540	...	26	1,971	1,898	United Kingdom........	12,634	13,989	Italy..................	7,224	9,612
Ivory Coast...........	444	655	16,304	25,648	27	30	1,488	1,586	France...............	9,454	12,117	Germany, Fed. Rep......	1,428	3,555
Wool														
South Africa, Rep.....	124	108	134,099	123,263	24	10	22,709	12,044	France...............	23,486	25,141	United Kingdom.........	32,649	24,266

Note on countries: Somali Republic—former Italian Somaliland only; Fed. Rep. of Cameroon—former French Cameroun only; Rep. of South Africa includes South West Africa; and Rep. of the Congo includes Rep. of Rwanda and Kingdom of Burundi.

1/Less than one-half the unit. 2/Exports by major destinations in thousand metric tons were, in 1959 and 1960: United Kingdom - 731 and 800; and Netherlands - 364 and 370. 3/Exports amounted to approximately 6,500 thousand metric tons to France and 400 thousand metric tons to Federal Republic of Germany in 1960.

Table 14.--Total Imports and Imports of Selected Commodities

[Millions of dollars]

Country and year	All commod-ities	Manufactures: Total	Machinery, electric	Machinery, non-electric	Road motor vehicles	Other transport equipment	Metal manu-factures	Base metals	Textile yarn and fabrics	Chemicals	Other manu-factures	Fuels	Crude materials	Food, beverages, and tobacco
Algeria 1/...........1959..	1,140.9	745.9	66.4	105.7	97.6	16.8	51.2	66.8	66.5	68.5	206.4	58.8	46.7	239.4
1960..	1,264.9	827.5	65.9	116.6	101.3	22.7	55.9	85.1	67.7	81.8	230.5	62.5	49.8	303.4
Angola...............1959..	131.0	95.9	2.3	18.5	10.7	6.4	7.1	3.4	17.4	6.7	23.4	6.1	3.2	25.0
1960..	127.6	91.1	2.3	16.8	11.8	4.9	6.7	3.9	15.9	6.5	22.3	5.4	5.9	24.9
Cameroon, Fed. Rep...1959..	81.6	56.5	2.8	5.0	6.0	1.4	3.6	3.5	7.1	11.4	15.7	6.5	1.2	16.4
1960..	84.1	58.9	2.7	3.9	5.7	2.3	3.1	3.2	9.0	11.0	18.0	6.5	1.7	16.5
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)....1958..	350.7	233.5	21.6	43.1	33.6	20.5	8.4	37.5	6.6	23.9	38.3	31.4	36.6	48.0
1959..	299.9	189.7	18.4	28.9	28.6	9.5	4.3	32.7	5.5	24.2	37.6	29.3	32.2	47.4
Equatorial Africa (former French)														
Central African Rep...............1959..	17.4	12.1	0.6	1.4	1.8	0.3	0.7	0.4	2.4	1.0	3.5	1.6	0.4	2.8
1960..	20.0	14.8	0.7	1.4	2.7	0.4	0.9	0.6	3.0	1.1	4.0	1.7	0.4	2.9
Chad, Rep..........1959..	24.9	14.4	0.8	1.1	1.7	0.3	0.9	0.7	3.3	1.5	4.1	3.6	0.7	5.5
1960..	25.0	16.0	1.0	1.1	2.4	0.3	0.8	1.0	3.4	1.3	4.7	3.0	0.9	4.7
Congo, Rep.........1959..	56.2	41.4	3.4	6.3	7.3	2.7	3.9	2.0	3.6	3.1	9.1	3.7	0.3	9.9
1960..	70.1	51.9	3.8	7.9	6.8	3.4	5.5	3.8	4.7	3.9	12.1	4.6	0.3	12.2
Gabon, Rep.........1959..	28.3	20.2	1.2	4.0	3.4	0.9	2.1	1.6	1.3	1.4	4.3	1.8	0.3	5.4
1960..	31.8	21.9	1.4	3.7	4.6	0.7	1.9	1.1	2.1	1.6	4.8	2.4	0.3	6.3
Ethiopia and Eritrea 2/ 1959..	83.4	...	2.7	...	7.1	1.0	...	2.0	10.9	2.4	...	9.0	1.4	...
1960..	84.8	62.4	3.1	12.0	8.4	0.8	3.6	2.3	11.9	4.6	15.7	8.4	2.5	8.8
French Somaliland....1959..	11.8	...	...	...	0.3	...	1.5	3/	0.5	0.1	1.1	3/	0.9	2.7
1960..	13.4	...	...	...	0.5	...	2.1	0.1	0.6	0.1	1.4	3/	0.7	2.6
Gambia...............1959..	8.8	5.7	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	1.6	0.7	1.5	0.4	0.3	2.1
Ghana................1959..	316.5	227.4	10.8	25.4	24.5	11.0	13.4	14.6	50.0	25.2	52.5	17.7	1.0	65.5
1960..	362.7	267.9	13.1	37.1	31.6	12.7	16.4	11.8	55.2	26.6	63.4	19.0	0.9	69.4
Kenya 4/.............1959..	220.7	159.6	7.5	25.2	20.9	5.6	8.6	16.2	24.1	15.9	35.6	29.5	1.8	18.9
1960..	251.6	191.1	8.7	26.9	27.4	8.8	9.3	19.5	33.2	18.4	38.9	31.2	2.2	15.1
Liberia..............1959..	42.9	31.8	2.4	3.2	4.6	0.3	2.2	1.6	4.1	2.7	10.7	2.8	0.2	7.8
1960..	69.2	54.3	4.0	9.9	7.8	1.6	4.0	4.3	3.9	4.7	14.1	2.8	0.6	11.0
Libya................1959..	113.6	87.3	5.0	20.0	13.2	2.8	4.6	4.2	6.6	9.2	21.7	5.9	2.0	17.5
1960..	169.1	135.9	5.9	30.1	26.8	5.4	5.9	14.5	7.4	13.2	26.7	9.2	2.8	20.0
Malagasy Rep.........1959..	119.5	89.9	4.7	8.8	11.1	2.2	6.0	5.2	18.4	8.8	24.7	6.3	3.3	18.0
1960..	111.1	82.3	5.5	7.8	10.9	1.6	5.5	6.0	13.6	8.8	22.6	6.6	2.8	17.5
Mauritius and Seychelles..........1959..	62.2	37.6	4.3	4.5	→ 3.2 ←		1.5	2.6	4.9	7.0	9.6	2.9	1.5	18.4
Morocco..............1959..	287.8	139.2	8.0	17.9	26.4	1.8	3.5	17.5	9.2	24.6	30.3	24.9	44.3	64.5
1960..	411.9	214.2	11.6	28.3	29.6	22.9	5.2	29.2	13.8	30.9	42.7	30.1	64.3	86.7
Mozambique...........1959..	120.1	88.9	3.4	10.4	9.4	9.0	7.3	4.2	18.7	4.7	21.8	5.8	5.9	19.2
1960..	126.5	92.9	3.9	12.3	10.1	4.0	8.2	5.9	19.7	5.3	23.5	6.4	6.7	20.5
Nigeria..............1959..	502.4	385.5	22.0	43.0	37.0	20.8	29.9	32.1	84.9	28.3	87.5	29.0	5.7	74.5
1960..	602.7	472.9	26.8	46.5	49.8	21.5	34.9	29.8	115.0	34.2	114.4	31.7	6.0	84.2
Rhodesia and Nyasa-land, Fed..........1959..	402.4	329.7	37.7	52.6	37.4	19.5	21.8	18.2	32.2	34.7	75.6	27.4	14.3	41.5
1960..	439.3	343.1	34.0	62.2	40.2	14.2	18.1	24.4	37.1	37.2	75.7	26.7	16.8	42.2
Sierra Leone.........1959..	65.9	37.0	1.5	2.8	3.5	1.4	3.1	2.6	9.5	2.9	9.7	8.1	0.5	18.5
1960..	73.5	45.6	2.2	4.2	3.7	0.7	3.5	3.0	12.9	3.2	12.2	8.9	0.6	16.9
Somali, Rep.														
Former British Somaliland........1959..	12.4	5.9	0.2	1.4	→ 0.6 ←		0.3	0.2	1.2	0.3	1.7	0.6	0.1	5.6
Former Italian Somaliland........1959..	18.4	11.9	0.4	1.4	1.6	0.8	0.8	0.5	2.2	1.2	3.0	1.1	0.6	4.3
South Africa, Rep....1959..	1,364.2	1,067.3	89.8	192.5	152.4	54.4	41.1	48.3	165.8	98.6	224.4	107.7	83.0	86.8
1960..	1,555.4	1,240.8	97.6	209.4	197.8	67.8	45.0	72.2	195.3	109.3	246.4	106.2	103.5	78.8
Sudan, Rep...........1959..	163.9	105.3	3.0	7.4	2.5	16.2	6.0	7.9	32.9	10.7	18.7	14.4	0.1	40.7
1960..	180.5	133.3	4.6	15.1	10.2	14.1	10.3	5.7	38.7	12.0	22.6	14.2	3/	30.2
Tanganyika 4/........1959..	79.3	62.2	2.5	6.8	9.7	1.7	3.4	7.5	15.8	4.3	10.5	7.7	0.3	6.4
1960..	82.9	65.0	2.7	8.5	11.1	2.2	3.3	6.7	14.8	4.7	11.0	8.1	0.4	6.3
Togo.................1959..	15.2	9.3	0.4	1.0	1.4	0.2	0.5	0.5	2.1	1.2	2.0	1.2	0.4	3.8
1960..	26.1	19.1	1.7	3.6	1.8	0.9	2.1	1.6	3.2	1.4	2.8	1.4	0.8	4.1
Tunisia..............1959..	152.9	99.2	5.0	10.8	10.5	1.2	5.8	5.7	26.3	12.1	21.8	16.0	5.7	30.7
1960..	190.6	128.1	7.2	20.9	13.9	1.1	7.2	10.5	28.6	13.7	25.0	17.5	6.8	37.4
U.A.R. (Egypt).......1959..	615.8	339.8	32.0	86.4	24.6	12.1	13.0	38.0	11.0	74.0	48.7	63.8	46.7	151.0
Uganda 4/............1959..	40.1	34.1	2.0	4.0	5.4	0.8	1.7	3.4	7.4	3.1	6.3	0.1	0.3	2.1
1960..	40.3	33.9	1.6	4.1	6.6	0.9	1.8	2.8	6.7	3.0	6.4	0.1	0.5	1.6
West Africa (former French)														
Dahomey............1959..	16.0	10.2	0.3	1.0	1.5	0.2	0.8	1.2	1.2	1.1	2.9	1.7	0.1	4.0
1960..	31.0	18.0	0.8	1.5	2.8	0.6	1.1	3.0	2.4	1.6	4.2	3.0	0.4	5.2
Guinea.............1959..	61.9	...	5.3	13.3	2.8	...	...	...	3.3	...	3.8	2.3	0.7	7.3
1960..	49.9	...	2.0	3.0	...	...	1.9	1.2	5.1	...	3.8	3.9	0.4	5.2
Ivory Coast........1959..	114.6	83.4	4.6	11.0	14.5	2.0	6.9	4.0	16.1	6.7	17.6	7.6	1.5	21.5
1960..	120.1	89.9	5.5	9.5	15.2	1.9	6.6	5.5	17.8	8.0	19.9	7.1	1.9	20.4
Senegal 5/.........1959..	178.4	106.4	6.2	12.0	10.2	3.0	7.4	5.0	29.3	9.5	23.8	8.8	2.0	60.4
1960..	172.1	109.0	6.8	13.0	11.0	1.6	6.1	6.8	30.1	9.9	23.7	8.4	2.3	51.1
Niger..............1959..	7.2	4.3	0.2	0.4	0.6	3/	0.2	0.1	1.6	0.3	0.9	0.3	0.2	2.3
Upper Volta........1959..	8.4	7.1	0.4	0.7	1.7	0.7	0.4	0.2	0.6	0.5	1.9	0.1	0.2	0.9
1960..	8.2	6.3	0.4	0.7	1.1	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.8	0.5	1.7	0.6	0.3	0.9
Zanzibar and Pemba...1959..	15.4	5.5	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.2	1.5	0.4	1.8	0.9	1.6	6.4
1960..	14.7	6.1	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.1	0.4	0.2	1.6	0.4	1.7	1.0	1.4	5.4
Africa, total 6/.....1959..	7,212.7	5,007.4	374.2	775.4	617.0	218.3	281.6	364.9	722.9	529.0	1,124.1	529.1	322.9	986.3

Note: Imports are reported f.o.b. by Fed. of Rhodesia and Nyasaland and Rep. of South Africa.

1/Beginning 1960, excludes the departments of the Sahara. 2/Years ending September 10. 3/Less than $50,000. 4/For Kenya, Tanganyika, and Uganda, excludes imports from each other. 5/Prior to July 1, 1960, refers to Senegal, Mali, and Mauritania; from July 1 to August 20, 1960, to Senegal and Mali; and beginning August 20, 1960, to Senegal only 6/Totals are aggregates of trade for countries shown and include estimates where complete commodity distribution is not available. Data have been adjusted to c.i.f. valuation, where necessary.

Table 15.--Value Index Numbers of Foreign Trade

[1958 = 100]

Country	1955	1956	1957	1959	1960	1955	1956	1957	1959	1960
	Imports					Exports				
Algeria	61	68	92	100	111	95	88	96	75	81
Angola	72	85	94	101	98	76	89	91	97	97
Cameroon, Fed. Rep. 1/	97	89	94	76	77	82	65	72	94	84
Central African Rep.	93	92	98	90	104	98	109	104	95	86
Chad, Rep.	87	99	97	89	90	80	87	78	68	54
Congo, Rep.	74	86	97	97	121	74	83	94	103	129
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian), Rwanda, Rep., and Burundi, Kingdom	105	115	121	85	...	112	131	116	120	...
Dahomey	116	103	114	78	130	98	94	85	71	103
Ethiopia	84	86	85	107	109	91	92	104	99	120
Gabon, Rep.	57	64	116	80	91	71	64	86	113	121
Gambia	95	95	122	81	82	60	59	95	68	64
Ghana	104	105	114	134	153	92	84	87	109	112
Guinea	51	52	70	84	67	115	115	112	114	213
Ivory Coast	100	97	99	99	110	97	100	90	90	101
Kenya	117	115	118	101	115	84	99	94	116	121
Liberia	67	69	99	112	180	...	108	102	124	154
Libya	42	48	81	118	175	91	82	107	85	79
Malagasy Rep.	97	104	114	94	88	85	97	92	78	78
Mauritius	85	75	88	96	111	88	104	114	100	63
Morocco 2/	126	117	104	84	102	95	99	94	97	102
Mozambique	79	83	91	104	110	76	75	92	94	104
Niger	75	85	98	69	121	87	108	79	64	69
Nigeria	82	92	92	107	129	98	99	94	121	122
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.	88	101	113	95	99	127	134	115	138	152
Senegal 3/	95	95	108	86	86	67	88	101	85	82
Seychelles	107	79	80	98	115	75	81	84	98	91
Sierra Leone	57	77	94	79	88	52	67	94	99	151
Somali Rep.										
Former British Somaliland	72	70	100	110	...	77	71	77	116	...
Former Italian Somaliland	99	113	115	129	...	77	68	80	111	...
South Africa, Rep., and South-West Africa	87	89	99	88	100	94	105	115	109	113
Sudan, Rep.	82	76	114	96	106	116	154	118	154	146
Tanganyika	130	107	117	103	113	85	106	94	107	128
Togo	100	85	89	84	145	148	89	79	117	97
Tunisia	117	126	113	99	123	69	73	97	93	78
Uganda	126	104	107	95	96	91	89	101	93	93
U.A.R. (Egypt) 4/	81	81	83	93	98	89	87	105	94	117
Upper Volta	111	105	103	98	96	100	106	92	84	79
Zanzibar and Pemba	110	117	124	103	101	115	116	116	92	111
United States	89	98	101	117	116	87	107	117	98	115

Note: Trade between countries that used to comprise former British East Africa, French Equatorial Africa, or French West Africa has been excluded generally from the value of trade underlying index number computations in this table.

1/Former French Cameroun only. 2/Prior to 1958, former French zone only. 3/Prior to July 1, 1960, refers to Senegal, Mali, and Mauritania; from July 1, 1960, to August 20, 1960, to Senegal and Mali; and beginning August 20, 1960, to Senegal only. 4/For 1958-60, excludes trade with Syria.

Table 16.--Volume and Price Index Numbers of Foreign Trade

[1958 = 100]

Country	1955	1956	1957	1959	1960	1955	1956	1957	1959	1960
	Imports					Exports				
	Volume									
Algeria	55	61	84	105	111	141	115	116	98	108
Angola	76	86	94	100	96	74	95	94	105	107
Cameroon, Fed. Rep. 1/	88	82	89	86	88	78	74	80	108	108
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian), Rwanda, Rep., and Burundi, Kingdom	112	120	120	89	...	96	101	101	117	...
East Africa (former British)	125	108	115	98	105	82	90	90	106	120
Ethiopia	86	92	88	101	108	101	89	102	102	127
Ghana	108	104	113	133	153	96	109	121	120	141
Malagasy Rep.	69	78	103	103	103	86	91	90	87	84
Mauritius	84	77	90	102	118	90	103	112	98	59
Morocco 2/	123	108	95	85	101	103	98	96	106	112
Mozambique	104	108	113	...	...	80	86	107	85	...
Nigeria	82	92	89	108	122	94	106	102	120	118
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.	94	105	115	98	100	85	96	103	125	135
South Africa, Rep., and South-West Africa	91	91	98	87	103	90	97	103	111	115
Sudan, Rep.	87	80	106	105	107	98	119	88	150	118
Tunisia	104	110	102	110	135	73	69	95	108	94
U.A.R. (Egypt)	77	77	72	101	...	87	83	89	104	...
United States	87	94	96	119	118	92	109	115	97	113
	Price									
Algeria	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Angola	90	96	99	105	104	99	96	98	94	88
Cameroon, Fed. Rep 1/	93	92	92	106	103	94	79	79	102	92
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian), Rwanda, Rep., and Burundi, Kingdom	96	96	100	96	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Africa (former British)	99	102	102	100	104	108	110	106	98	94
Ethiopia	97	93	96	105	101	91	103	102	97	95
Ghana	97	100	101	100	101	94	76	72	91	78
Malagasy Rep.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mauritius	100	98	99	95	94	94	100	100	100	108
Morocco 2/	88	93	98	102	114	83	90	93	94	108
Mozambique	93	87	90	...	...	85	105	144	108	...
Nigeria	99	101	103	98	103	104	98	99	105	106
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.	94	96	98	97	99	152	142	113	111	112
South Africa, Rep., and South-West Africa	95	98	100	97	97	102	107	109	98	97
Sudan, Rep.	99	100	112	93	104	107	117	118	90	110
Tunisia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
U.A.R. (Egypt)	100	101	107	89	...	96	104	116	91	...
United States	102	104	105	99	100	94	98	101	101	101

1/Former French Cameroun only. 2/Prior to 1958, former French Morocco only.

Table 17.--Balance of Payments

[Millions of dollars]

Country and year	Merchandise and nonmonetary gold: Exports	Merchandise and nonmonetary gold: Imports	Transportation and insurance	Other services	Investment income	Private donations and remittances	Government grants and transfers	Private capital: Long-term	Private capital: Short-term	Official and banking capital: Long-term: Total1/	Official and banking capital: Long-term: Loans	Official and banking capital: Long-term: Other1/	Official and banking capital: Short-term	Official and banking capital: Monetary gold2/	Net errors and omissions
			Net												
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)															
1958	503	-331	-100	-69	-70	-28	-16	-4	-2	117	109	8	-17	17	-3/
1959	569	-298	-108	-81	-80	-70	2	-89	-25	51	43	8	89	41	-1
East Africa (former British)															
1958	341	-339	-10	-15	-20	-1	3	23	3	45	3	42	-12	...	-18
1959	356	-339	-14	-13	-28	-1	15	23	-6	8	3	5	3	...	-4
Ethiopia															
1958	64	-69	-6	-5	-4	-1	13	3/	4	5	3	2	6	-1	-6
1959	67	-72	-8	-4	-4	-1	19	1	-1	1	6	-5	10	-3/	-8
1960	77	-76	-8	-4	-5	-2	13	10	-7	9	9	-3/	-4	3/	-3
Ghana															
1958	300	-219	-24	-16	-4	-2	3/	-10	-1	-19	-4	-15	...	-	-5
1959	316	-299	-26	-10	-4	-2	-3/	12	-	10	-11	21	...	-	3
1960	329	-348	-31	-17	-4	-2	-1	5	5	60	...	60	...	-6	10
Liberia															
1958	52	-38	-2	1	-18	1	3/	9	...	6	6	...	...	-3/	-11
1959	63	-43	-3	2	-24	1	1	9	...	6	6	...	...	-3/	-12
Libya															
1958	13	-98	-	-16	4/71	-5	51	3/	3/	-10	1	-11	-2	-	-4
1959	11	-120	-	-20	4/91	-4	56	-3/	-3/	-18	1	-19	1	-	3
1960	10	-175	-	-50	4/172	-4	55	-5	2	-9	3	-12	1	-	3
Morocco															
1958	349	-363	-31	-8	-20	2	181	8	-3	4	...	4	-12	-3	-104
1959	339	-306	-29	6	-14	1	138	4	3/	-51	...	-51	31	-7	-112
1960	382	-386	-24	1	-20	3/	113	1	-17	-36	...	-36	...	-5	-9
Nigeria															
1958	376	-471	3/	-16	2	-9	3	→ 39 ←				→ 60 ←			16
1959	454	-505	-5	-17	-8	-15	-3	→ 68 ←				→ 21 ←			10
1960	454	-608	-9	-20	-15	-16	-1	→ 67 ←				→ 146 ←			2
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.															
1958	415	-448	-46	-49	-60	11	3/	93	37	50	8	42	-24	3/	21
1959	555	-429	-44	-56	-89	13	3/	61	-48	-26	1	-27	61	3/	2
1960	619	-448	-41	-64	-106	11	2	22	-27	41	14	27	16	3/	-25
Somali Rep.5/															
1958	12	-13	-1	-3/	-2	-3	6	...	...	-3/	...	-3/	1	-	-3/
1959	13	-15	-3/	-3/	-2	-4	8	...	...	-3/	...	-3/	-3/		
South Africa, Rep.															
1958	1,700	-1,581	-116	-31	-213	8	18	70	14	46	20	26	45	6	34
1959	1,934	-1,393	-97	-32	-209	6	24	-28	-27	-120	45	-165	-10	-27	-21
1960	1,973	-1,578	-102	-37	-219	-32	24	-205	-4	160	21	139	-22	60	-18
Sudan, Rep.															
1958	128	-155	-2	-3	1	-7	2	-2	...	33	-1	34	4	-	1
1959	195	-141	-3	-8	1	-2	8	-	1	16	24	-8	-65	-	-2
1960	184	-178	-3	-1	1	-1	16	2	-2	11	19	-8	-25	-	-4
Tunisia															
1958	153	-155	-5	3	-4	3/	95	3	-2	3	3	-3/	-5	6/-19	-67
1959	144	-160	-1	-5	3/	3/	72	1	-2	-47	-3/	-47	-1	-2	1
1960	129	-198	-3	-24	2	1	76	15	4	-4	-1	-3	2	3/	-3/
U.A.R. (Egypt)															
1958	468	-620	115	30	8	1	-62	4	-	29	-	29	19	15	-7
1959	480	-691	131	18	12	9	-80	-75	-	47	6	41	133	-	16
1960	585	-761	145	10	6	9	-81	33	-	116	27	89	-43	-	-19
United States															
1958	16,263	-12,951	36	-3,322	2,246	-540	-1,798	-2,326	37	-971	...	...	671	2,275	380
1959	16,282	-15,294	-113	-2,916	2,213	-575	-1,849	-1,560	4	-1,728	...	...	3,933	1,075	528
1960	19,409	-14,722	-126	-2,864	2,276	-633	-1,856	-2,094	-345	-1,109	...	...	1,010	1,702	-648

Note: Minus sign indicates payments (debit); all other figures are receipts (credit). Long-term official and banking capital often includes some unspecified amounts of short-term capital.

1/Data for 1959 include payments on increased subscriptions made to the International Monetary Fund by member countries. 2/Plus indicates net gold sales or outflow; minus means net purchases or inflow. 3/Less than $500,000. 4/Includes losses incurred by foreign-owned oil companies in connection with oil exploration. 5/Former Italian Somaliland only. 6/Includes some Central Bank assets.

Table 18.--Economic Assistance

[Millions of dollars]

Country	Multilateral economic assistance (net): International Bank for Reconstruction and Development			Other international agencies			Bilateral economic assistance: United States (net)						Other free world 1/	Sino-Soviet bloc	
	1950-53	1954-57	1958-61	1950-53	1954-57	1958-61	1950-53	1954-57	1958-61 Total	1958-61 Grants	1958-61 Credits	1958-61 Other	1960	1956-58	1959-61
Algeria	-	9.7	43.9	-	-	2/	...	1.0	3.9	4.2	-0.3	-	329.0	-	-
Angola and Mozambique	-	-	-	-	-	-	...	-	2/	2/	-	-	-	-	-
Cameroon, Fed. Rep. 3/	-	-	-	-	2/	1.6	...	...	0.7	0.7	-	-	-	-	-
East Africa (former British) 4/															
Kenya	-		2.1	-	2/	0.3								-	-
Tanganyika	-	24.0	...	-	0.2	2.8	2.0	1.0	12.7	13.8	-1.1	-	49.9	-	-
Uganda	-		...	-	2/	0.6								-	-
Equatorial Africa (former French)	-	-	...	-	-	3.8	...	-.4	-1.4	...	-1.4	-	-	-	-
Central African Rep.	-	-	...	-	-	0.3	...	...	2/	2/	...	-	-	-	-
Chad, Rep.	-	-	...	-	-	3.1	...	2.2	2/	2/	...	-	-	-	-
Congo, Rep.	-	-	...	-	-	-	...	...	0.1	0.1	...	-	-	-	-
Gabon, Rep.	-	-	28.3	-	-	0.4	...	...	0.1	0.1	...	-	-	-	-
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	32.1	5.9	28.5	-	-	0.6	...	-1.9	40.4	40.4	-	-	71.1	-	-
Ethiopia	5.4	1.9	10.5	0.3	1.4	3.9	2.0	15.3	38.0	35.4	1.7	0.9	7.8	2.0	111.6
French Somaliland	-	-	-	-	-	0.2	...	...	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gambia	-	-	-	-	-	-	...	2/	0.1	0.1	-	-	-	-	-
Ghana	-	-	-	2/	0.1	2.2	...	0.3	6.1	6.1	-	2/	0.5	-	182.1
Liberia	-	-	-	0.4	0.9	2.3	7.0	12.5	44.2	14.5	29.7	-	-	-	-
Libya	-	-	-	0.9	3.0	4.9	3.0	52.0	107.7	100.9	6.8	-	9.0	-	-
Malagasy Rep.	-	-	-	-	-	3.7	...	1.2	0.4	0.4	-	-	-	-	-
Morocco	-	-	-	-	2/	3.2	12.0	11.1	220.6	80.4	128.7	11.6	5/42.2	-	4.4
Nigeria	-	-	28.0	-	0.2	5.6	...	0.5	8.9	6.9	2.1	-.1	26.8	-	-
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed.	22.6	32.0	78.3	2/	2/	1.0	19.0	29.6	-33.8	0.8	-34.6	-	6.8	-	-
Rwanda, Rep., and Burundi, Kingdom	-	-	4.5	-	-	0.9	...	...	0.4	0.4	-	-	15.0	-	-
Sierra Leone	-	-	-	-	0.1	0.3	...	0.1	0.9	0.8	-	0.1	6.5	-	-
Somali Rep. 6/	-	-	-	-	2/	3.4	...	1.0	9.6	9.2	0.1	0.3	15.9	-	62.8
South Africa, Rep.	57.7	51.7	3.6	-	-	-	60.0	57.2	-53.6	-	-53.6	3/	-	-	-
Sudan, Rep.	-	-	35.5	2/	0.3	5.8	...	2/	42.8	32.6	8.7	1.5	13.9	-	22.0
Togo	-	-	-	-	-	1.0	...	...	1.6	1.6	-	-	-	-	-
Tunisia	-	-	-	-	0.2	2.8	...	10.5	188.0	168.0	9.3	10.8	5/	-	46.0
U.A.R. (Egypt)	-	-	40.0	0.3	2.6	7/10.3	2.0	86.6	310.3	84.0	123.0	103.2	7/14.1	626.0	-10.9
West Africa (former French)															
Dahomey	-		...	-	-	0.2	...	...	1.2	1.2	-	-	-	-	-
Guinea	-		...	-	-	0.6	...	...	3.5	2.5	-	1.0	-	-	109.6
Ivory Coast	-		...	-	-	3.1	...	...	0.9	0.9	-	-	-	-	-
Mali	-	6.2	...	-	-	0.3	...	2/	1.8	1.8	-	-	-	-	65.0
Mauritania	-		15.3	-	-	0.9	...	2/	0.1	0.1	-	-	-	-	-
Niger	-		...	-	-	1.1	...	2/	0.1	0.1	-	-	-	-	-
Senegal	-		...	-	-	0.5	...	0.1	0.3	0.3	-	-	-	-	-
Upper Volta	-		...	-	-	1.2	...	2/	0.2	0.2	-	-	-	-	-

Note: Data shown generally represent actual disbursements less repayments; minus sign indicates excess of repayments over disbursements. Detail may not add exactly because of rounding. Assistance to African countries which was channeled through metropolitan European countries prior to their independence is not included. For 1950-54, data excludes U.S. assistance to individual countries valued at less than $500,000.

1/Excludes French assistance valued at $256 million to French-related African countries other than Algeria, Morocco, and Tunisia, and to non-African overseas territories of France. 2/Less than $50,000. 3/Former French Cameroun only. 4/Includes bilateral assistance to Zanzibar and Pemba. 5/Assistance to Tunisia included in assistance to Morocco. 6/United States assistance columns refer to former Italian Somaliland only. 7/Includes some assistance to Syria.

Table 19.--Reserves, Money Supply, and Exchange Rates at End of 1961

Country	Official holdings of gold and foreign exchange						Money supply				Exchange rates 1/ (United States dollars per national currency unit)	
	Total	Gold	Foreign exchange	Change in holdings		Foreign exchange holdings of deposit money banks	Total in national currency		Deposit money			
				since Dec. 31, 1953	since Dec. 31, 1960				Total	As percent of total money supply		
	(millions of dollars)											
Algeria	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. new francs	2,3/2,317	...	...	franc...	$ .2026
Cameroon, Fed. Rep.	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	2,4/12,118	2,4/3,525	29	franc...	.0041
Congo, Rep. of the (former Belgian)	5/48	32	16	-305	-15	...	mil. Belgian francs	...	...	...	franc...	.2000
East Africa (former British)	...	...	2,6/157	...	...	...	mil. pounds	7/130	2/68	...	pound... 7/	2.8000
Kenya	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. E. African shillings	...	2/805	...	shilling	.1400
Tanganyika	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. pounds	...	2/15	...	pound...	2.8000
Uganda	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. E. African shillings	...	2/179	...	shilling	.1400
Zanzibar	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. E. African shillings	...	2/72	...	shilling	.1400
Equatorial Africa (former French)	...	...	19	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	2/18,503	2/6,554	35	franc...	.0041
Central African Rep.	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	2/2,257	2/592	26	franc...	.0041
Chad, Rep.	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	2/4,755	2/527	11	franc...	.0041
Congo, Rep.	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	2/5,510	2/2,412	44	franc...	.0041
Gabon, Rep.	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	2/4,642	2/1,683	36	franc...	.0041
Ethiopia	57	3	54	15	2	...	mil. dollars	2/208	2/52	25	dollar..	.4025
Ghana	8,9/380	9/-	9/376	-29	-66	9/25	mil. Ghanaian pounds	91	48	53	pound...	2.8000
Libya	84	-	84	73	3	...	mil. Libyan pounds	...	...	...	pound...	2.8000
Malagasy Rep.	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	2,10/15,381	2,11/1,605	10	franc...	.0041
Mauritius	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. rupees	2/182	2/113	62	rupee...	.2100
Morocco	178	...	...	136	-27	...	mil. dirhams	2,12/95	...	...	dirham..	.1976
Nigeria	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. pounds	2/129	2/42	32	pound...	2.8000
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Fed. 7/	226	-	226	64	31	...	mil. pounds	85	58	68	pound...	2.8000
South Africa, Rep.	394	298	95	99	150	31	mil. rands	912	679	75	rand....	1.4000
Sudan, Rep.	177	-	177	-1	-14	2	mil. Sudanese pounds	42	17	42	pound...	2.8716
Togo	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	2/4,339	2/419	10	franc...	.2026
Tunisia	75	3	72	...	-10	4	mil. dinars	88	51	58	dinar...	.2381
U.A.R. (Egypt)	221	174	47	-507	-70	91	mil. Egyptian pounds	458	202	44	pound...	2.8716
West Africa (former French)	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	2,3/59,366	...	...	franc...	.0041
Dahomey	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	...	2/1,349	...	franc...	.0041
Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. Guinea francs	...	...	...	franc...	.0041
Ivory Coast	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	...	2/7,126	...	franc...	.0041
Mali	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	...	2/2,779	...	franc...	.0041
Mauritania	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	...	2,13/9,788	...	franc...	.0041
Niger	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	...	2/992	...	franc...	.0041
Senegal	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	...	13/...	...	franc...	.0041
Upper Volta	...	...	...	...	...	...	mil. CFA francs	...	2/954	...	franc...	.0041
United States	17,063	16,947	116	-5,028	-741	14/586	mil. dollars	147,500	118,300	80	....	.....

1/Exchange rates shown are par values established with the International Monetary Fund or official rates of exchange. Countries with a par value at the end of 1961 were the following: Algeria, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Libya, Morocco, Fed. of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Rep. of South Africa, Sudan, U.A.R. (Egypt), Uganda, and Zanzibar. 2/End of 1960. 3/Notes and coins in circulation only. 4/Former French Cameroun only. 5/As of June 30, 1961. 6/Sterling reserves only. 7/As of June 30, 1960. 8/Includes other official holdings, such as those of commodity marketing boards. 9/As of March 31, 1961. 10/Excludes bank demand deposits. 11/Postal checking deposits only. 12/Notes in circulation only. 13/Deposit money of Senegal included in that of Mauritania. 14/Short-term claims on foreigners expressed in foreign currencies.

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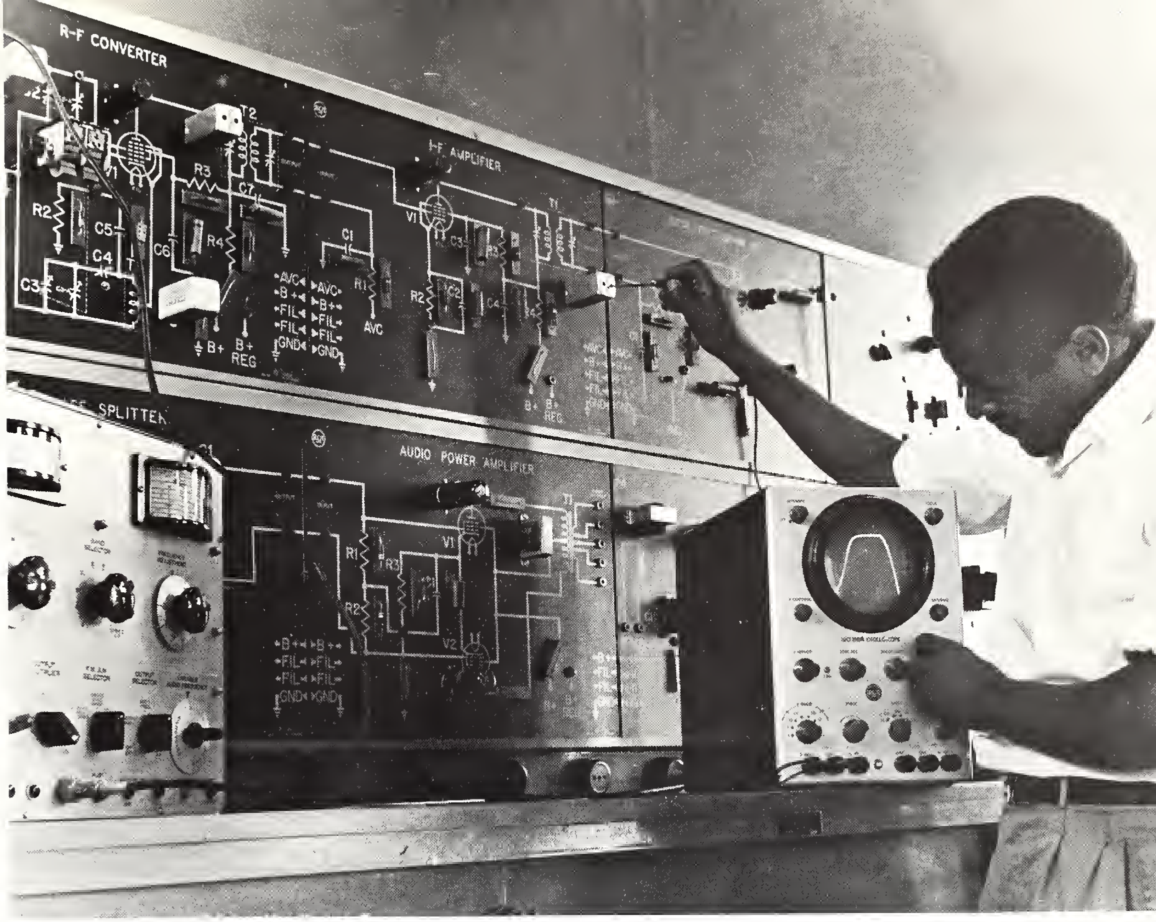
Symbols used in the tables are as follows:

. . . Comparable data not available.

— None or negligible.



Courtesy World Bank

Africa in transition.

Courtesy World Bank

U. S. FOREIGN SERVICE POSTS IN AFRICA
as of January 1, 1963
■ EMBASSY (E)
▲ LEGATION (L)
● CONSULATE GENERAL (CG)
○ CONSULATE (C)
△ CONSULAR AGENCY (CA)
◪ BRANCH OF EMBASSY
□ SPECIAL OFFICE
Boundaries are not necessarily those recognized by the U. S. Government.
MADEIRA IS.
CANARY IS.
IFNI
Tangier
Casablanca
RABAT
MOROCCO
ALGIERS
Oran
Constantine
TUNIS
TUNISIA
(In Dispute)
Undetermined
ALGERIA
Tripoli
LIBYA
BENGHAZI
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Algeria	Permanent Mission of Algeria to the United Nations 236 East 46th Street New York 17, N.Y.	
Ethiopia	2134 Kalorama Road NW. Washington 8, D.C.	
French Somaliland (French Territory).	Embassy of France 2535 Belmont Road NW. Washington 8, D.C.	
Libya	1611 Upshur Street NW. Washington 11, D.C.	
Morocco	1601 21st Street NW. Washington 9, D.C.	Moroccan Trade Information Center 10 East 40th Street, New York 16, N.Y.
Somali Republic	1806 New Hampshire Avenue NW. Washington 9, D.C.	
Spanish Sahara (Spanish Territory)	Embassy of Spain 2700 15th Street NW. Washington 9, D.C.	
Sudan Republic	3421 Massachusetts Avenue NW. Washinton 7, D.C.	
Tunisia	2408 Massachusetts Avenue NW. Washington 8, D.C.	Tunisia Trade Office 543 Madison Avenue, New York 22, N.Y.
Middle Africa		
Federal Republic of Cameroon	5420 Colorado Avenue NW. Washington 11, D.C.	
Kingdom of Burundi	Permanent Mission of the Kingdom of Burundi to the United Nations 60 E. 42d Street New York 17, N.Y.	
Central African Republic	1618 22d Street NW. Washington 8, D.C.	
Chad	1132 New Hampshire Avenue NW. Washington 7, D.C.	
Congo (Brazzaville)	2128 Bancroft Place NW. Washington 8, D.C.	
Congo (Leopoldville)	4800 16th Street NW. Washington 9, D.C.	

Country	Embassy or United Nations Address	Information Office Address
Dahomey	6600 16th Street NW. Washington 12, D.C.	Hotel Lucerne 201 West 79th Street, New York, N.Y.
Gabon	4900 16th Street NW. Washington 11, D.C.	
Ghana	2460 16th Street NW. Washington 9, D.C.	Ghana Information and Trade Center 565 5th Avenue, New York 17, N.Y.
Guinea	2112 Leroy Place NW. Washington 8, D.C.	
Ivory Coast	2424 Massachusetts Avenue NW. Washington 8, D.C.	Information Office 120 Wall Street, New York, N.Y.
Liberia	5201 16th Street NW. Washington 11, D.C.	
Malagasy (Madagascar)	2374 Massachusetts Avenue NW. Washington 8, D.C.	
Mali	2130 R Street NW. Washington 8, D.C.	
Mauritania, Islamic Republic of	2737 Cathedral Avenue NW. Washington 8, D.C.	
Niger	2013 Q Street NW. Washington 9, D.C.	
Nigeria	500 Dupont Circle Building 1346 Connecticut Avenue NW. Washington 6, D.C.	Nigeria Trade and Investment Office 575 Lexington Avenue, New York 22, N.Y.
Rwanda	2300 Connecticut Avenue NW. Washington 9, D.C.	
Senegal	2112 Wyoming Avenue NW. Washington 8, D.C.	
Sierra Leone	1701 19th Street NW. Washington 9, D.C.	
Togo	2208 Massachusetts Avenue NW. Washington 8, D.C.	
Upper Volta	5500 16th Street NW. Washington 11, D.C.	
East and Southern Africa		
Angola (Portugal)	2125 Kalorama Road NW. Washington 8, D.C.	House of Portugal 447 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y.
Kenya and Zanzibar	Embassy of Great Britain 3100 Massachusetts Avenue NW. Washington 8, D.C.	British Information Service 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N.Y.
Mozambique (Portugal)	2125 Kalorama Road NW. Washington 8, D.C.	House of Portugal 447 Madison Avenue, New York. N.Y.
Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Federation of (Britain).	2852 McGill Terrace NW. Washington 8, D.C.	
South Africa, Republic of	3101 Massachusetts Avenue NW. Washington 8, D.C.	
Tanganyika	Permanent Mission of Tanganyika to the United Nations 205 East 42d Street New York 22, N.Y.	
Uganda	Permanent Mission of Uganda to the United Nations 801 2d Avenue New York 17, N.Y.	

Independent States of Africa

Country	*Date of independence*	*Capital*	*Former legal status*	*Present chief official and title*
Ethiopia (includes Eritrea).	Since ancient times.	Addis Ababa		Haile Selassie I, Emperor.
Liberia	1847	Monrovia	Private colony	William V. S. Tubman, President.
Public of South Africa (inc. le Walvis Bay).	1910	Pretoria and Capetown.	British colonies and independent republics.	Hendrik F. Verwoerd, Prime Minister.
United Arab Republic (Egyptian Region).	1922	Cairo	British protectorate	Gamal 'Abd al-Nasir, President.
Libya	December 24, 1951.	Tripoli and Benghazi.	Former Italian colony jointly administered since World War II by France and Britain.	Idris I, King.
The Sudan	January 1, 1956.	Khartoum	Anglo-Egyptian condominium.	Gen. Ibrahim Abboud, President of the Supreme Council.
Morocco	March 2, 1956	Rabat	French and Spanish protectorates, International Zone of Tangier.	Hassan II, King.
Tunisia	March 20, 1956.	Tunis	French protectorate	Habib Bourguiba, President.
Ghana	March 6, 1957	Accra	British colony and protectorate, British U.N. trusteeship (British Togoland).	Kwame Nkrumah, President.
Guinea	October 2, 1958.	Conakry	French overseas territory.	Sékou Touré, President.
Cameroon	January 1, 1960.	Yaoundé	French U.N. trusteeship.	Ahmadou Ahidjo, President.
Togo	April 27, 1960	Lomé	do	Nicolas Grunitzky, President.
Senegal	June 20, 1960	Dakar	Autonomous member, French Community.	Leopold Senghor, President.
Mali	June 20, 1960	Bamkao	do	Modibo Keita, President.

Country	Date of independence	Capital	Former legal status	Present chief official and title
Malagasy Republic (Madagascar).	June 26, 1960	Tananarive	do	Philibert Tsiranana, President.
Republic of the Congo (Léopoldville).	June 30, 1960	Léopoldville	Belgian colony	Joseph Kasavubu, President; Cyrille Adoula, Prime Minister.
Somali Republic (includes former Italian Somalia and British Somaliland).	July 1, 1960	Mogadiscio	Italian U.N. trusteeship and British protectorate.	Aden Abdulla Osman, President.
Dahomey	August 1, 1960	Cotonou	Autonomous member, French Community.	Hubert Maga, President.
Niger	August 3, 1960	Niamey	do	Hamani Diori, President.
Upper Volta	August 5, 1960	Ouagadougou	do	Maurice Yameogo, President.
Ivory Coast	August 7, 1960	Abidjan	do	Felix Houphouet-Boigny, President.
Republic of Chad	August 11, 1960	Fort-Lamy	do	François Tombalbaye, President.
Central African Republic	August 13, 1960	Bangui	do	David Dacko, President.
Republic of Congo	August 15, 1960	Brazzaville	do	Fulbert Youlou, President.
Gabon	August 17, 1960	Libreville	do	Léon M'ba, President.
Nigeria	October 1, 1960	Lagos	British colony and protectorate.	Alhaji Sir Abubakar Tafawa Balewa, Prime Minister.
Mauritania	November 28, 1960.	Nouakchott	Automonous member, French Community.	Moktar Ould Daddah, President.
Sierra Leone	April 27, 1961	Freetown	British colony and protectorate.	Sir Milton Margai, Premier.
Tanganyika	December 9, 1961.	Dar es Salaam	British U.N. Trusteeship Territory.	Julius Nyerere, President.
Republic of Rwanda	July 1, 1962	Kigali	Part of Ruanda-Urundi Belgian-U.N. Trusteeship Territory	Gregoire Kayibanda, President.
Kingdom of Burundi	July 1, 1962	Usumbura	do	Mwami (King) Mwambutsa IV.
Algeria	July 3, 1962	Algiers	15 Departments of the French Republic.	Ahmed Ben Bella, Prime Minister.
Uganda	October 9, 1962	Kampala	British protectorate	A. Milton Obote, Prime Minister.

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Africa South of the Sahara: A Selected, Annotated List of Writings, 1951–56. 1957. 269 pp. $2.
Out of print. Positive microfilm available from Photoduplication Service, Library of Congress, for $2.50. A revision now in process will cover essential works from the list and the 1952 Introduction to Africa.

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Nigerian Official Publications, 1869–1958: A Guide. 1959. 153 pp.
A limited number of copies are available free of charge from the Office of the Secretary, Library of Congress.

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Available from Card Division, Library of Congress.

Official Publications of British East Africa:
Part I. The East Africa High Commission and Other Regional Documents. 1960. 67 pp. 60 cents.
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Both available from Card Division, Library of Congress.

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Economic Survey Since 1950. United Nations, Sales No. 59, II K.I.

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